THE
International Record
OF
Charities and Correction
Edited by FREDERICK HOWARD WINES

VOL. II., No. 7
OCTOBER, 1887

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS, NEW YORK AND LONDON

PUBLISHED MONTHLY
10 CTS. PER NO. $1.00 PER YEAR

THE TORONTO PRISON CONGRESS.

The meeting of the National Prison Association, at Toronto, September 10th to 15th, was in many respects the most important and interesting of the "second series" of such Congresses in the United States. The attendance of prison wardens was uncommonly large, which may be attributed in part to the organization of the new "Wardens' Association," a purely official body, in hearty sympathy with the aims of the Prison Association, as was demonstrated by the unanimous vote taken to hold its meetings always at the same time and place with the latter. Nearly all of those present were connected directly or indirectly with prison management and control. Very little was said that was not sensible and to the point; and the truth that prisons exist in part, if not primarily, for the moral improvement of those committed to them received a degree of recognition and acknowledgment not usually accorded to it. A deep impression was made upon the hearts of those who listened to the sermon by the Bishop of Huron, the speech by Chaplain Hickox, and the address by Mayor Howland, which is not likely soon to be effaced or forgotten. As might be expected in Canada, the social features of the occasion were more than ordinarily prominent, and the hospitalities offered to the members of the Association were as delightful as they were cordial and unobtrusive. A very long step was taken in advance in dealing with the crime question, by the adoption of the Bertillon system of measurements for the identification of convicts. The connection between the question of the treatment of misdemeanants and that of inebriates was brought out as never before. And steps were taken for a closer union between American and European penologists and philanthropists, through the recommendation to the President of the appointment of the editor of the RECORD as a member of the International Prison Commission. There was but one circumstance to mar the pleasure and profit of the occasion—the absence, on account of illness, of Mr. W. M. F. Round, the Secretary of the Association, and his resignation of the position which he has filled with so much credit to himself and so great advantage to the work in which it is engaged. We extend him our sympathy and best wishes for his early and complete recovery from the exhaustion due to overwork on his part.

FIRST DAY—SATURDAY.

Wardens' Association.

The Wardens' Association for the Identification of Habitual Criminals met, at 10 o'clock, in the theatre of the Normal School, the use of which had been generously granted for this purpose by the Provincial Minister of Education. A more delightful room than this cannot be well imagined, with the dais at the end next the hallway from which it is entered, and a door at each side; the room is elliptical in shape at the farther end, with a gallery in the shape of a horse-shoe running around it; this gallery does not extend over any portion of the floor; the whole is lighted by a skylight, as well as by windows in the gallery; the walls are ornamented by busts of the most prominent men and women in English history, especially in letters, numbering in all a hundred or more. The room was just large enough, and its acoustic properties admirable; its location renders it absolutely free from noise.

Mr. Joseph Nicholson, superintendent of the Detroit House of Correction and president of the Association, took the chair and delivered the following address:

The originators of the Wardens' Association for the Identification of Criminals have endeavored to keep the managers of all penal institutions posted on our efforts and aims, and you hnve been invited to meet with us again here to-day, and by your counsel and experience aid in perfecting an organization that we believe will be of incalculable benefit in dealing with the criminal classes. We are thoroughly satisfied that such an organization is very much needed, and will prove to be a long step in the right direction, and we trust that no pet theories will prevent the hearty coöperation of the managers of every penal institution in our land. This association will try to overcome a most stubborn obstacle to the proper administration of justice, and to our efforts for the reformation of criminals, by seeking to know the real desert of every criminal brought up for sentence, by knowing his parentage, his moral perceptibilities, physical structure, habits of life when not in confinement, the temptations he failed to resist, and the causes that have driven him into criminal pursuits. With these facts easily obtained by courts of justice, as we propose they shall be, under proper restrictions, there will be no difficulty in telling the first offender from one of the crime class. Our records for identification will work no injury to those imprisoned for the first time, after being released, as long as they keep from criminal practices, but failing in this, upon conviction, they must be numbered with the crime class and dealt with accordingly. The time is not far distant when society will be forced to demand less indifference on the one hand aud less sentimentality on the other than is now manifested by a large part of the community on the important question of how to deal with its criminals. The deterrent power of fear has its place in reformation, but fear of brutalizing punishment has proven a failure, and we are now seeking to make the deterrent power of fear more potent by practically wise and humane treatment. We recognize the necessity for intermediate prisons, with such laws governing them as will give a reasonable opportunity, by suitable education, to eradicate criminal desires, and fan into greater strength that spark of manhood that lingers in the bosom of every human being. For such prisons, the records of this association would be of immeasurable benefit. To make this association a success, we ask the hearty coöperation of every prison manager in the land, With such coöperation we shall soon have an accurate register of every criminal in the country.

Identification of Criminals.

Mr. R. W. McClaughry, warden of the Illinois State Penitentiary at Joliet, read a translation of Mr. Bertillon's paper on "Anthropometry," written for the International Prison Congress at Rome. This translation was understood to have been made by Mr. Gallus Müller, clerk of the Joliet prison. It is too long to be given here in full. The following extracts will furnish an idea of its purport:

When an habitual criminal is brought to justice for crime, he is very apt to conceal his true name, and if he has taken precautions in advance, to borrow the name of a person who has never been convicted. He thereby escapes the increase of punishment incidental to a second offence, an increase more or less common in every country; either through imperative prescriptions of the law, or through the latitude left to the judge to let the punishment fluctuate between two extremes. Moreover, a large number of these habitual criminals are wanted for other crimes, for sentences in contumacy, or for infractions in the military service, or, what amounts to the same, have reasons, known only to themselves, to believe that they are wanted for some old offence.

Under such circumstances it is certain that many months of preliminary imprisonment will elapse before an indicted person of that sort will give his true name and thereby expose himself to renewed criminal prosecution.

Judiciary records could not possibly show any thing about a professional criminal who has taken the precaution to declare a false name.

The usual description accompanying these records, "round chin, full face, gray eyes," etc., have never brought out the identification of an evil-doer except perhaps in novels. An experienced anthropologist would be a wondrous man if he could identify an individual from these meagre details.

A photograph is certainly preferable to any description, but it solves only part of the problem. The experience had in Paris has demonstrated it. In ten years the police has collected in its gallery the photographs of one hundred thousand persons. Is it possible at every arrest to run over, one after the other, these one hundred thousand photographs? Evidently not. Nor has any appliance of photography succeeded in rendering the service expected of it, and since, as well as before, its use, the guiltiest and the smartest recidivists have had the benefit of the advantages and indulgences which the law and penal code allow for a first offence. It is true that the inspectors of police, and particularly the superintendents of prisons, recognize a certain number (about twenty per month on the average, in Paris alone), and make it a point to communicate the information to the proper authorities.

The application of the method of anthropometric descriptions has upset these figures. A large number of criminals have discontinued using assumed names, finding it useless, and the keepers of houses of correction record only three or four per month with aliases, and these are generally given by criminals who have been absent from Paris for a long time, or who have particular reasons for taking such chances. Under the new system about forty per month are thus recognized and identified.

The anthropometric description consists of the notation of various bone dimensions, which remain unchangeable on the same subject, and which are recorded in a uniform way. These are principally the stature or height of the figure, the length and width of the head, the length of the foot, middle finger, etc.

To illustrate, let us suppose that these indications had been noted during the past ten years on the one hundred thousand photographs collected in Paris, and that this collection was to be classified. It will be seen shortly that it may be done even without photographs. The general aspect this classification would present is as follows:

The hundred thousand photographs are first divided according to sex, the males on one side, the females on the other. These latter are less in number than the males, numbering, we suppose, about 20,000. Of minors, which also requires a special classification, there are, say 20,000 more. As to the remaining group of 60,000 adult males, we will divide them into three divisions based on the height of their figure, viz.:

Those of small height, comprising about 20,000 photographs.
" " medium " " " " "
" " large " " " " "

To make these three divisions approximately equal, it is evidently necessary that the series of "medium height" should be of less extent than those of large or small height, and should contain, for instance, only the individuals measuring from 1 m., 62 to 1 m., 67 (metrical system); while that of large height would contain all the individuals measuring from 1 m., 68 to the giant of 2 metres; and the series of small height, all the subjects from 1 m., 61 down to the dwarf of 1 metre and a few centimetres.

Each one of these original divisions is then subdivided on the same principle, without regard to the stature of the individual, into three series, according to the *length* of the head. These new subdivisions, numbering 9, would then contain those

With heads of small length, 6,000 photographs and over.
" " " medium " " " " "
" " " large " " " " "

These subdivisions of 6,000 are again divided into three groups, according to the *width* of the head, with the following result:

Those of small width, 2,000 photographs.
" " medium " " "
" " large " " "

The *length of the middle finger* will give a fourth indication, still more precise, and will again subdivide each of the foregoing packages of photographs into three parts, thus reducing them to series of 600 each. Each will be again subdivided into still smaller portions, by taking the *length of the foot* for basis of subdivision, or the *color of the eye*, or the measurement of the out-stretched arms, etc. A division by the length of the foot would give a quotient of 200, reduced by a division of the out-stretched arms to 63, again reduced by the color of the eyes (7 divisions) to 9 in each final division.

The meaning of all this is, that, by the means of five new co-efficient anthropometric measurements (the sex, stature, age, and the color of the eyes having always been considered in the old way of taking descriptions), the Paris collection of photographs could be divided into groups of not more than 10 photographs each, which it would be an easy matter to examine rapidly and carefully.

Nothing is more simple or expeditious than the taking of these measurements—an operation requiring two to three minutes' time only, and within the range of the intelligence of an ordinary man.

The following are the instruments used: One set of caliper-compasses, and two sliding-compasses. These instruments are rigorously precise, and are not expensive.

The variations in individuals are so great, and the precision of the measurements so perfect, that, as has been shown of 100,000 subjects, there are hardly 10 who will show approximate figures.

We must bear in mind that whenever an evil-doer makes up his mind to assume a false name, he must have a good reason for doing it, and knows, or has reasons to suppose, that other prosecutions are pending against him.

In this respect, therefore, the identification of a criminal under an assumed name, is, as far as the general welfare is concerned, equivalent to his direct arrest on the public highway for some other crime.

This detection and identification of about 1½ criminals per day, which is accomplished through systematic efforts of the administration, more than compensates for the expenses of three employés, who are engaged in this service in the city of Paris.

M. Herbette, director of the penitentiary administration of France, to whom the method of anthropometric descriptions owes more than its life—I mean by that the necessary moral and material support that every new system claims while its existence is imperilled—M. Herbette, I say, did not fear to extend throughout France the system tried at Paris, and this, too, without having recourse to the costly apparatus of the photographer. The experiment, although recent, has been entirely successful.

I ought to add that, since the anthropometric description has been made obligatory, criminals have subjected themselves to it with a good grace, and I have not yet had to remark a single instance of a persistent refusal after a few hours' reflection. The most dangerous criminal as well as the mildest recidivist entertains always the conviction that it is the last time that such an experience will befall him, and so exhibits considerable disdain for the system.

The objection has been made that this system properly appertains to the police and courts of justice, and that the penitentiary has nothing to do with it.

The organizers of this congress by inviting me to come to Rome have given proof that they did not think likewise. It is evident that former penitentiary congresses, on whose programmes the question of an international exchange of criminal records was prominent, were of the same opinion.

I am asked what difference it makes to the warden of a penitentiary whether this or that cell is occupied by a recidivist or by a first offender? Have we not yet outgrown, ladies and gentlemen, the old theories which see in a penitentiary officer only a watchful turnkey? "Lock him up for six months, for one year,"—and that is all. Does not the starting-point of reform lie in the officer's personal acquaintance with the prisoner and his past record? In prison, as well as in courts of justice, is it right to treat on a footing of equality a professional criminal and an unfortunate who has committed in reality his first offence? The dissimulations of identity, as we have said before, frequently lengthen the duration of imprisonment before trial to a considerable extent. Who then will assert that whatever has a tendency to shorten what has been called the torture of modern ages has no bearing on penology?

But let us take a more elevated standpoint. Neither the clerks of criminal courts nor the commissioners of police are able, owing to their numerous other duties, to preside personally over the daily practical application of anthropometric descriptions. (I speak here simply of the way matters are situated in France.) At all times courts of justice have been accustomed to apply to prison authorities to obtain information from them regarding the doubtful identity of persons under arrest and on trial. Hence, if courts of justice reap the greatest benefit from a universal application of this system, should the administration of penitentiaries systematically refuse to lend their assistance? Is it not evident, on the contrary, that certain executive departments of the government (as, for instance, the prefecture of police of Paris) owe their existence to a most intimate fusion and coalition between the judiciary and the penitentiary service?

My most cherished desire is to see this system of anthropometric descriptions extended to other countries.

Together with the paper by M. Bertillon, Mr. McClaughry submitted a pamphlet of instructions to those entrusted with the duty of making measurements.

An adjournment was had until 3 o'clock in the afternoon, after appointing a committee on business and another on organization and time and place of next meeting.

On reassembling, Mr. McClaughry, with the aid of Messrs. Müller and Luke, of the Joliet prison, gave a practical illustration of the mode of measurement, by means of instruments manufactured in France for this specific purpose. Warden Cassidy offered himself as a subject to be experimented upon. Mr. Müller then showed the method of recording the convict's description on a card, how the cards are distributed in separate pigeon-holes, and with what facility they can be found and identified. This exhibition excited a lively interest in all present.

The Association then adjourned, to meet at the call of the president.

The wardens and superintendents present at this meeting were: Bean, of Thomaston, Maine; Brush, of Sing Sing, New York; Cassidy, of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Dodge, of Concord, New Hampshire; Durston, of Auburn, New York; Felton, of Chicago, Illinois; Lavelle, of Kingston, Canada; McClaughry, of Joliet. Illinois; Massie, of To-

ronto, Canada ; Murdock, of Michigan City, Indiana ; Nicholson, of Detroit, Michigan ; Oliver, of the House of Refuge, Cincinnati, Ohio ; Patterson, of Trenton, New Jersey ; Smith, of Leavenworth, Kansas ; Watkins, of Ionia, Michigan ; and Ziegler, of the Workhouse, Cincinnati, Ohio. Sixteen, reprenting nine States and the Dominion.

The other wardens who made their appearance during the week, but at a later date, were : Berry, of South Boston, Massachusetts ; Brockway, of Elmira, New York ; Coffin, of Columbus, Ohio ; Mrs. Johnson, of Sherborne, Massachusetts ; Myers, of St. Cloud, Minnesota ; Patterson, of Cleveland, Ohio ; Tufts, of Concord, Massachusetts ; Warner, of Hoboken, Pennsylvania ; and Whiton, of Deer Island, Boston, Massachusetts. Nine more, making in all twenty-five wardens or superintendents, representing the Dominion and twelve States. To these should perhaps be added Brother Justin, of the Catholic Protectory, New York City. They, and the ladies who accompanied them, made very nearly one half of the entire attendance, outside of Canada,—a larger proportion of executive officers of prisons and reformatories than has ever before been present at any Prison Congress in this country.

Opening of the Congress.

The National Prison Association (which is a distinct organization from the Wardens' Association) held its opening session in the evening, at the Pavilion, in the Horticultural Gardens. It was estimated that two thousand people were in the audience, on the floor and in the galleries. The delegates sat upon the platform. Mayor Howland presided. The Rev. Father McCann made the opening prayer.

The Lieutenant-Governor, Sir Alexander Campbell, welcomed the Congress to the Province of Ontario. He thought that an appropriate watchword for all who have to deal with the criminal class would be "merciful severity." He touched upon the question of the need of a new extradition treaty between Canada and the United States. The lack of such a treaty, he said, is not the fault of Canada nor of the British Government.

Mayor Howland extended a cordial welcome on behalf of the city of Toronto.

Other speeches were made by the Minister of Education, Prof. Goldwin Smith, and by the Hon. S. H. Blake, ex-Vice-Chancellor. Mr. Ross. the Minister of Education, said that during the past ten years the population of Ontario had increased twenty per cent., and the criminal population was ten per cent. less than it was ten years ago.

President Hayes was then introduced to the audience, and received an ovation. He was evidently much touched by the kind allusions which had been made to himself—among other things, Mayor Howland had spoken of him as a "citizen king," and compared him to Cincinnatus,—and spoke with great feeling of the hospitality shown to the Congress by the people of Toronto and of the Dominion. He did not wonder that our criminals like to go to Canada. He expressed the admiration felt by the strangers from this side the line for the beautiful and prosperous city in which the Congress had assembled, and agreed with the Lieutenant-Governor as to the necessity for a revision of the treaty between the two countries. He proceeded to read the following address :

Address by President Hayes.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN :—The cordial welcome extended to the National Prison Congress in the city of Toronto was fully anticipated, but is none the less gratifying on that account. We have been in no doubt as to the reception we would meet.

The work which John Howard began, more than a century ago, in England, and to which he gave his life, is not circumscribed by national boundaries, and the interest in its aims, purposes, and success is not confined to any race or tongue. And yet it must be admitted that prison reform is nowhere universally or even generally popular. It is simply not considered by the majority of men. Rev. Dr. Haygood spoke wisely when he said to the Congress last year, at Atlanta, that the most serious obstacle in the way of prison reform is the prevalent sentiment of despair of prison reform. Society is silent and inactive in the presence of many recognized evils, because society has no faith ; they are accepted as inevitable and endured because they are believed to be beyond cure. But in a world that God governs, no notion can be more false or harmful ; in God's world what ought to be done can be done. The longer it may take to remedy a recognized evil, to right an admitted wrong, the sooner will wise men set about it ; the harder the task, the more zealously good men will do their duty in trying to accomplish it.

The National Prison Congress comes to this flourishing city, knowing full well that in this interesting part of North America are many men who have given to the subject of prison reform serious reflection, but knowing also that, in all probability, here, as in all other civilized communities, the majority even of the intelligent and well-disposed have not considered it. The leading object of desire with the members of the National Prison Congress, wherever they have assembled in annual session heretofore, has been to induce the people to study the subject, to become informed about it, and thus to create that enlightened and favorable public opinion which is the essential precursor of successful reform.

To introduce the subject to this audience, it may not be out of place to repeat a few things as to the history, character, and proceedings of this association which are very familiar to all of its members.

In 1869, the late Rev. Dr. E. C, Wines, "the learned, devoted, and persistent leader of American reformers in prison discipline," prepared the following draft of a call for a National Congress : "The undersigned, deeming prison discipline a vital interest of society, as well as one of the gravest of social problems, and on both these grounds worthy of the closest study and freest discussion, cordially unite in calling a National Congress for conference on criminal punishment and reformatory treatment, to be held in the autumn of 1870, in the city of Cincinnati."

This call received ninety-one signatures, classified as follows : "Twenty-five wardens of prisons, seventeen superintendents of juvenile reformatories, twenty-two members of prison and reformatory boards, eight members of boards of State charities, four chaplains of prisons and reformatories, and fifteen general philanthropists.

In pursuance of this call, the first National Prison Congress was held in Cincinnati in October, 1870. Its most important action, perhaps, was the appointment of a committee to take steps for the organization of a permanent National Prison Association. The objects of the association, as stated in the resolution of the Cincinnati Congress, and afterwards in its charter and constitution, are as follows :

1. The amelioration of the laws in relation to public offences and offenders, and the mode of procedure by which such laws are enforced.

2. The improvement of the penal, correctional, and reformatory institutions throughout the country, and the management, government, and discipline thereof, including the appointment of boards of control and other officers.

3. The care of, and procuring suitable and remunerative employment for, discharged prisoners, and especially for such as may or shall have given evidence of a reformation of life.

The National Prison Association has held successful and instructive general meetings in Cincinnati, Baltimore, Saratoga, St. Louis, Detroit, and Atlanta, Georgia, and special meetings in New York, Chicago, and other cities. Present, and taking part in all the proceedings of its meetings, have been the most distinguished practical experts who have the control and management of the leading penal and reformatory institutions of America. If you name the famous prisons and reformatories and the eminent specialists at their head, you will find that you have named prominent and influential members of this society. In like manner the eminent students and writers—those who have investigated at home and abroad the whole subject of prisons and prison discipline—are active participants in the work of this Association. Practice and theory, experiment and speculation, observation and experience, the man of books and the man of works are here found side by side. No one familiar with the discussions and papers of the society can fail to have noticed the increasing harmony in principle, purpose, and methods of all the elements brought together in its meetings. An unreflecting writer has said that prison reform and sentimentalism are convertible terms. Nothing could be further from the truth. Hear the reply given to this sneer last year at Atlanta.

Prison reform has nothing in common with the sentimentalism that makes martyrs out of condemned murderers, heroes out of convicted felons. It does not send women to the cells of the justly condemned, with rare delicacies and costly flowers ; it is ashamed of those who do such things. It does not sign petitions for executive clemency, simply because somebody presents them ; it judges those who do such things with indiscriminating sensibility to be foolish and weak people, who have small comprehension of the true principles of social order. Prison reform believes in the enforcement of law ; it insists upon the proper punishment of criminals, as necessary to the security of society and the promotion of virtue, and as best, every way, for criminals themselves.

A recognized high authority on the subject of prison reform, Gen. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio, says : "The two dominant ideas in the creation of prisons and in the treatment of prisoners are, or at least should be : (1) the deterrent influence upon those outside, and (2) the reformation of those inside." With these principles firmly insisted upon, the Association also confidently adopts certain methods. Among them some of the chief are classification of prisons and prisoners, industrial training, productive labor, education and religion. If time permitted, I might go into detail and set forth at large the conclusions that have been reached by

the Association on a great number of interesting and important questions relating to prisons and the treatment of prisoners. I think I am not mistaken, when I say that among the questions which have been amply debated and investigated, the following are some of those which may be considered settled in the judgment of the Association. Of course it will not be understood that they are in practice settled. Indeed, as to most of them, the work of forming public sentiment, so that the results named may be embodied in legislation, still remains to be done. Hence the necessity for the continued and increased activity of this and other similar organizations.

1. As to *jails*, prison reform declares that the county-jail system as administered in the United States is a disgrace to civilization, and that the administration of justice cannot be freed from the charge of maintaining training-schools of crime, until the construction and management of these places are radically changed, so that their inmates shall be separately confined, and all contaminating intercourse rendered impossible. The county jail should secure such separation that no prisoner shall be allowed to associate with any other prisoner.

2. Prison reform requires that, wherever it is practicable, there shall be separate prisons for women, with officers of their own sex; and that in any prison in which women are held under arrest, or as convicts, matrons or female officers ought to be in constant attendance.

3. Prison reform urges the adoption of inflexible rules, under which the habitual criminal—the unreformed convict—shall always be held within prison walls. Is it not a reproach to the administration of criminal justice, that well-known professional criminals, after repeated convictions, are still at large, preying upon the community and requiring the constant and vigilant efforts of the police to protect life and property.

4. The friends of prison reform hold that promptness and certainty in the detection and punishment of crime are the chief agencies by which society can protect itself against the criminal class; and that the deterrent forces of the law now lose a part of their value, through the needless delays, uncertainties, and irregularities of criminal jurisprudence; they therefore earnestly recommend such changes in the laws and their administration, that judgment against crime shall be executed with certainty and speedily.

5. Prison reform would abolish in all prisons vindictive personal punishments. To maintain the best discipline in prisons, we must appeal to something better than the lash, the thumb-screw, or other form of physical torture. There may be exceptional cases, but certainly they are very rare.

6. Prison reform encourages organized Christian effort to aid and care for prisoners after their discharge. In most cases, now, society does not give the discharged convict a chance to avoid his old haunts and his old companions in crime. The brand of Cain is upon him, and every man's hand is against him.

7. Prison reform recommends the general education of the youth of both sexes in industrial pursuits, employing and training the faculties of both mind and body in productive labor, as an efficient means of preventing crime.

This catalogue of measures, about which prison reformers are in substantial accord, might be largely extended. But I forbear to trespass further upon your time. At this meeting of the National Congress, we all lament the absence Mr. Wm. M. F. Round, the secretary of this Association, and the secretary of the Prison Association of the State of New York. For years he has been able, earnest and zealous, without compensation employed in the labors of the most exacting office of the Association. We all devoutly trust that the illness which prevents him from being with us to-night may speedily pass away.

Finally, all descriptions of people and all peoples were within the scope of the comprehensive benevolence of John Howard. All civilized peoples have in some measure shared in the blessings conferred by his philanthropic labors. All who have caught the spirit of his reform, whether on this side or on that of a national boundary line, are not merely at one with each other, but among the intelligent and the good, their work is always in order, and they find themselves in the best sense of the phrase altogether and always at home.

A most agreeable feature of this evening's entertainment was the music furnished by the Citizens' Band, which was uncommonly good. The selections played were:

Overture: Diadem, ... *Hermann.*
Forge in the Forest, ... *Michaelis.*
Selection of Irish Airs.
Xylophone Solo: Cordelia Polka.
American National Airs, followed by God Save the Queen.

SECOND DAY—SUNDAY.

The Congress attended morning service in a body at St. James' Cathedral, where an admirable sermon was preached by the Bishop of Huron, from the text: "He hath sent me to bind up the broken-hearted, to proclaim liberty to the captives, and the opening of the prison to them that are bound." He made prominent the Christian feature of a warden's duty, the salvation of the men committed to his custody, and declared that it is not a hopeless undertaking. He also pointed out various tendencies at work in the heart of society which promote crime.

Among the hymns sung at this service was one not familiar to most of the Americans present, which appeared to many of them to give such apt expression to their deepest feeling as laborers for the uplifting of the degraded and fallen, that by special request we reproduce it it here.

Lord, speak to me, that I may speak
In living echoes of thy tone;
As thou hast sought, so let me seek
Thy erring children lost and lone.

O lead me, Lord, that I may lead
The wandering and the wavering feet;
O feed me, Lord, that I may feed
Thy hungering ones with manna sweet.

O strengthen me, that while I stand
Firm on the rock and strong in thee,
I may stretch out a loving hand
To wrestlers with the troubled sea.

O teach me, Lord, that I may teach
The precious things thou dost impart;
And wing my words, that they may reach
The hidden depths of many a heart.

In the evening the clergymen of the city very generally spoke on the prison question from their respective pulpits. Several pulpits were acceptably filled by delegates to the Congress.

THIRD DAY—MONDAY.

The Prison Chaplain.

The morning session was devoted to a discussion of the Moral and Religious Care of the Prisoner, and was under the auspices of the Prison Chaplains' Association. The following chaplains were present: Messrs. Hickox, of Jackson, Michigan; Phillips, of Howard, Rhode Island; Searls, of Auburn, New York; and Walter, of Joliet, Illinois.

The Rev. Dr. Searls read a paper on "The Duties and Responsibilities of Chaplains in Penal Institutions."

The position of chaplain in a penal institution is one of great delicacy. He requires special adaptation for the work upon which he enters.

The great Dr. Morley Punshon said, on one occasion, as he was about to address a congregation of prisoners: "I have but one qualification fitting me to address you, and that is—I am a sinner." This should be the chaplain's feeling and spirit. Such a feeling will alone impress those whom he seeks to save.

He should be a man of deep sympathies, and should fully enter into the trials and sorrows of the convict's life. The grandest note that comes down to earth's sorrowing ones is: "He can be touched with the feeling of our infirmities." "He knoweth how to succor them that are tempted." In Pope's Universal Prayer are words that come to us like the flowers of spring:

Teach me to feel another's woe;
To hide the fault I see;
That mercy I to others show,
That mercy show to me.

Howard tells us that "Convicts are not ungovernable; the most desperate will yield, if to the most resolute discipline we add the law of kindness. The manifestation of good-will to the prisoner will have a softening and purifying influence, tending towards his reformation."

The chaplain should also be a man of sound judgment and a quick reader of human nature.

The speaker gave a short account of the actual duties of a chaplain—preaching in the prison chapel, burying the dead, taking charge of the library, teaching the evening school, supervising the correspondence of prisoners, answering letters of inquiry respecting them, visiting the sick in the hospital, and personal conversation with convicts in their cells and in his own office. He continued:

The inquiry is often made as to the probable number reformed—a question no mortal can safely answer. Figures may indicate that about 20 per cent. return to prison again, but this does not and cannot show that the remaining 80 per cent. are reformed.

The preaching of the word, he said, "is as kindly listened to in a prison chapel as in any ordinary church service." He had no doubt that thousands have been truly converted to God in prison. Nothing will heal the sin-sick soul except the gospel of our Lord Jesus Christ. The chaplain is a moral teacher, to turn the tide of rebellion against God back to loyalty to the Divine government. He thought that religion can accomplish what is beyond the power of law, and incidentally expressed his disapproval of indefinite and interminable sentences, as "an effort to change the trend of human life by law," which tends to discourage men more than to encourage them. Law cannot make men loyal; it rests upon the chaplain to bring the prisoner back to himself; nothing can be done for a man while he is away from himself.

In closing he said:

No intemperate man, or who uses profane language, should be tolerated as a keeper in any penal institution in the land.

In the administration of disciplinary punishments, no man should receive chastisement at the behest and judgment of one man; if accused of an offence, the prisoner should be heard before at least three officers, and that at the earliest moment possible. The warden, the physician, and the principal keeper should constitute the court, and these should concur in whatever discipline may be inflicted. Without this, a feeling of injustice springs up in the mind and heart of the prisoner, and rank weeds of bitterness grow, from which it will be a difficult task to free the soul. Love is the principle of the spiritual universe, just as the force of gravity is the governing law of space. This principle, with the most thorough discipline—a discipline that shall quickly check the wrong and make the way of the transgressor hard, and at the same time let the sufferer see that tears of deep sympathy stand in the eyes of the administrator—then will the sinner kiss the rod and the hand that holds it.

We are to remember that prisoners read us more than books. May we earn the panegyric written of Howard:

From realm to realm, with cross or crescent crowned,
Where'er mankind in misery are found,
O'er burning sands, deep waves, or wilds of snow,
Mild Howard journeying seeks the house of woe.
Down many a winding step to dungeons dank,
Where anguish wails aloud, and fetters clank,
To caves bestrewed with many a mould'ring bone,
And cells whose echoes only learn to groan,
Where no kind bars a whispering friend disclose,
No sunbeam enters, and no zephyr blows,
He treads, inemulous of fame or wealth,
Profuse of toil, and prodigal of health;
Leads stern-eyed Justice to the dark domains,
If not to sever, to relax their chains;
Gives to the babes the self-devoted wife,
To her fond husband liberty and life.
Onward he moves; disease and death retire;
While murmuring demons hate, they still admire.

An interesting debate followed, in which wardens as well as chaplains took part. The wardens who spoke, fully admitted the importance of the chaplain's work, and the necessity for care on the part of the warden and other officers not to nullify it by opposition, indifference, or bad example. Mr. Hickox, in closing the discussion, expressed his great gratification at the recognition accorded to the chaplains by the wardens.

Invitations.

Invitations to hold the next Congress in Springfield (Illinois), in Pittsburgh, in Nashville, and in Boston, were presented, but no action was taken with regard to them.

Wardens' Association.

The wardens, however, took advantage of the unoccupied time to hold an adjourned meeting in the afternoon, at which the Bertillon system was further discussed. Considerable difference of opinion was apparent on the point whether the work of measurement and record proposed could properly be regarded as germane to the function of a prison. Not all the wardens would agree to take part in it, but the majority accepted it and decided to go on with it, believing that in time the verdict in its favor will be unanimous.

Warden Coffin submitted his report as treasurer of the Association, showing a balance of $80 on hand.

The committee on time and place of next meeting recommended that the annual meeting of the Wardens' Association, next year, be at whatever time and place shall be chosen by the National Prison Association. This was agreed to.

The former officers of the Association were re-elected, as follows:

President—Joseph Nicholson, Detroit.
Vice-Presidents—Frank S. Dodge, Concord, N. H.; James Massie, Toronto; J. H. H. Smith, Lansing, Mich.; E. C. Watkins, Ionia, Michigan.
Secretary—R. W. McClaughry, Joliet, Illinois.
Treasurer—E. G. Coffin, Columbus, Ohio.

Evening Session.

The session at night opened with a paper by Warden Patterson, on "Prison Management and Discipline," in which, after some general remarks on the two opposite extremes of over-severity and undue sentimentalism, he gave an account of the changes in the management of the New Jersey State Prison, of which he became principal keeper, April 23, 1886.

On my arrival at the prison, I found, at the outset, an excitement among the officers, amounting to almost a demoralization. Carefully noticing the development of circumstances, I at once began the work of correcting whatever was not conducive to the best interests of the prisoners, or was inimical to the successful management of the prison. I believed then, as I still firmly believe, that the purpose of criminal incarceration is primarily, perhaps, the reformation of the criminal, with the vindication of the law. Requiring of every convict these two important requisites to successful government, namely, prompt obedience to all lawful requirements, and thorough cleanliness of person and surroundings, I exacted of my deputies that these demands should be faithfully enforced.

A very short experience fully convinced me that the methods of punishment in use at that time, and for a long period by my two immediate predecessors, were not calculated best to secure present obedience, much less a probability of working any reform in the criminal, so far as his disposition to repeat the offence was concerned. I abolished the "stretcher." Cell number 166, of unsavory reputation, was torn out and occupied by prisoners. I also abolished the gag, in irons to the floor of a dungeon. I substituted for these confinement in a dark cell, without irons, (except in cases of extreme sullenness or obstinacy), on a bread-and-water diet. This method of punishment I have found extremely effective. From March, 1880, to March, 1881 (the last year of General Mott's term), the number of disciplinary punishments was 1,040; from April, 1885, to April, 1886 (the last year of Mr. Laverty's term), 844; from April, 1886, to April, 1887 (my first year), 319; and the year through which we are now passing will probably show a still smaller percentage.

Finding that the clothing was taken up, washed, and distributed promiscuously, I required that each prisoner should have his clothing legibly marked with his hall and number; that the clothing of prisoners known to be afflicted with infectious or contagious diseases should be washed apart from the rest; and that all, when thoroughly cleaned, should be returned to the halls and prisoners from which they came. Throughout the entire prison the same cleanliness is enforced. The beneficent results were seen in our hospital during the excessive heated term of last summer, the number of patients not exceeding fourteen, with only one death, in a prison population of nine hundred.

Mr. Patterson explained his reasons for changing also the method of feeding prisoners. They are now fed in their cells instead of in a common dining-hall.

The female department of the prison is now under the charge of Mrs. Patterson, as matron, and has been much improved in *morale*. The women are employed in finishing shirts, at the rate of 200,000 per month. Mrs. Patterson conducts a Sunday afternoon Bible-class for their benefit.

The mental, moral, and religious elevation of the male department of the prison is a matter to which I have given attention. The opportunity for such improvement, in all prisons, is by reason of discipline more or less restricted. In addition to the regular services by our chaplain, clergymen of all denominations have been cordially welcomed.

Among our prisoners I have found 125 English-speaking prisoners who could neither read nor write. For these I have established a night-school, divided with classes, taught by an educated convict, under the personal inspection and supervision of an officer.

The labor of the New Jersey prison is conducted on the piece-price plan, under which it has been found necessary

to increase the product, in order to maintain a proper standard of earnings. The industries pursued are: the manufacture of shirts, collars, and cuffs; shoes; stockings; and brushes. Mr. Patterson expressed himself warmly in opposition to the clamor for the abolition of all labor in prisons.

The Bertillon System.

Warden McClaughry was called upon once more to explain and illustrate the system of measurements advocated by M. Bertillon, which he did in a manner very pleasing to a popular audience, to whom it was rather an amusing exhibition.

A Warden's Relations and Duties.

Professor Francis Wayland, Dean of the New Haven Law School and President of the Board of Directors of the Connecticut State Prison, then delivered an unwritten address on the "Duties of a Warden," confining himself mainly to the points that a warden should be appointed by a board, who should also appoint his chief officers, but the warden should appoint turnkeys and guards; the power of the warden should be supreme within the prison, and he should be sustained by the board or discharged from his position; but he did not believe in the promotion of a deputy warden to the principal position in the prison, because that is a temptation to deputies to be disloyal to their superior officer.

Dissent was expressed by several delegates from some of the positions taken by Professor Wayland.

FOURTH DAY—TUESDAY.

Mr. Alfred H. Love, of Philadelphia, offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That we refer, with grateful satisfaction, to the reception given the National Prison Association at Atlanta, Ga., last November; and that we heartily congratulate Governor Gordon on his exposure of the lease system, and his efforts for its abolition.

Objection was made to the consideration of this resolution, on the grounds that it is not the policy of the Association to interfere with questions of local government, that the Association is not fully informed on the subject of the controversy in Georgia, and that any eulogy on Governor Gordon, coming from this quarter, might hinder rather than aid the progress of prison reform in that State. It was accordingly referred to the executive committee.

Physical Care of the Prisoner.

Professor Wayland opened the discussion on the topic assigned for the morning. He believed that the State, having assumed the care of the prisoner, is bound to furnish every thing requisite for his physical well-being, but nothing in the way of luxury. The treatment of convicts should be equal, and they ought not to be permitted to provide luxuries at their own cost, nor to receive them from friends outside. He disapproved of the common abuse of the privilege of visits while in prison. Labor is an essential of physical and mental health, and cannot be dispensed with. The outcry against convict labor is senseless. The question of earning money by the labor of prisoners should be entirely subordinate to that of their reformation, which, if it can be accomplished, is in itself a pecuniary gain to the community.

A remark dropped by the speaker, to the effect that he would not allow the use of tobacco to prisoners, gave a smoky tone to the debate which followed; this point received a disproportionate share of attention, and much that was said appeared to be frivolous and irrelevant. Warden Brush believed in treating prisoners as human beings, but did not think that we can ever make angels of them. Mr. Spalding, of Boston, Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Commissioners of Prisons, made the remarkable statement that, in the Massachusetts Reformatory, where tobacco is proscribed, the number of cases of insanity in proportion to the number of prisoners is only half what it is in the State Prison, where it is allowed. Warden Cassidy thought that Sir Walter Raleigh should be held in immortal honor for having given to civilization two priceless boons—tobacco and the potato. He described at some length, in reply to questions, the Pennsylvania system of separate confinement as practised in Philadelphia.

Dr. John Ince, a retired Surgeon-Major in the Indian Medical Service, who was in attendance at the International Medical Congress, and happened to be in Toronto, was introduced, and made an interesting address, describing the prisons of India, with which he had had official relations, having been in charge at one time of the Rawal-pindi prison, in the Punjaub. The views expressed by him were, however, not in sympathy with those entertained by a majority of the members of the Association, especially when he declared that a reformed criminal is as rare as a heathen convert to Christianity—that both are myths.

The Central Prison.

In the afternoon the delegates were invited to take a drive about the city of Toronto, particularly to the Mercer Reformatory and the Central Prison, which were inspected and complimented as they deserved.

A State Dinner.

The Lieutenant-Governor, Sir Alexander Hamilton, invited to dine with him, at Government House, as many gentlemen in attendance upon the Congress as his table would accommodate, which took away from the evening session a part of the audience. The hospitalities of his Honor were greatly enjoyed by those present, particularly the opportunity afforded of meeting socially some of the most eminent men of Canada.

Evening Session—Prison Discipline.

Notwithstanding the dinner at Government House, the evening session of the Congress was most interesting and profitable. The first paper read was by a guard in the Central Prison of Toronto, Mr. Hartley.

Prison discipline should be administered with a twofold object: (1) the maintenance of order within the prison, and (2) the reformation of the inmates.

Numerous methods have been tried, by which one or both these ends are sought to be attained. Without attempting any comparison or criticism, there are certain infallible rules or principles necessary to be observed under any system.

OBEDIENCE is the first great principle in any and every successful system of discipline. The first rule read to prisoners, on entering our institution, says: "The first duty of a prisoner is strict obedience, and it will be to his interest to obey all rules and regulations." This puts the whole thing in a nutshell. There must be unconditional surrender on the part of every inmate. Prisoners must obey every order promptly, no matter what their thoughts or feelings may be; and, if they feel aggrieved, make complaint afterward. It is a wilful, disobedient spirit, and want of respect for parental and lawful authority, that bring so many of our boys and young men to prison. Hence the great importance of its observance, as a means of reformation. No pecuniary consideration of labor, or sentiment, should stand for one moment, where the question of obedience is involved. In these times, when almost every prison desires to make a good financial showing, there is a tendency to overlook small acts of disobedience or breaches of discipline, if a man is an excellent worker. Prisoners are quick to note this, as the following instance will show. A young man, of very disobedient tendencies, had committed an offence and was confronted with the charge. His previous conduct rendered punishment certain, if reported, so he used the following expression: "You will lose three days' work." The class of prisoners who give the greatest amount of trouble are known as "cranks." That there are some among them who lack intelligence, or are pre-insane, no one doubts; but by far the greater portion are more knaves than fools, and make capital out of their real or assumed eccentricities. In the matter of obedience, this class seem to expect a large amount of license. Certainly, great discrimination is required to detect the schemer or fraud and not confound him with one who is weak-minded or afflicted. Taken altogether, this class should be subject to

the rule of obedience, and its enforcement will be beneficial to themselves.

Next in importance, in prison discipline, is the SUPPRESSION OF TALKING, sometimes termed "the silent system." This is a generally accepted principle, but in many institutions more in theory than in practice. In a large penal establishment which I visited a few months since, there seemed to be no serious effort to maintain silence. But it should not be neglected. To quote the words of a prisoner: "Talking is the root of all evil in a prison." Silence should be maintained for three good reasons. (1) To prevent the spread of criminal knowledge of schemes whereby the young and comparatively innocent become contaminated by the vile and filthy language, and their imaginations are excited by the recounting of evil deeds. (2) Because it is the principal agent in promoting and maintaining good order in the shop, in the ranks, and in the cells. Quarrels, fights, and disputes all have their origin in this talking nuisance. (3) It is important as a means of teaching self-control. Prisoners, when remonstrated with for talking, frequently use such expressions as: "It is pretty hard to keep from talking," or "You don't expect a man to be here and never speak," or "I only said so-and-so, and did not think there was any harm in it."—There is no rule so often violated as this, and none more difficult to enforce. The well-known saying, that "eternal vigilance is the price of liberty," may aptly be applied to prison government, for eternal vigilance is the price of good discipline. Old offenders or "jail-birds" are adepts in the art of sly talking, and will carry on conversations and communications that would not be noticed by an ordinary observer. Marching "lock-step" gives unusual facilities to indulge in conversation, and a great deal is done at that time; but the face of each man should be kept towards the officer in charge: this rule should be strictly enforced, as prisoners have an intense desire to observe something in the other direction. The enforcement of silence is a deterrent, and it is regarded, by many prisoners, as second only to the loss of liberty.

If the inmates of a prison have been brought under the rules of obedience and silence, two great steps have been gained. But special attention should be paid to the training of prisoners in habits of *cleanliness, personal neatness, smartness, and punctuality*. Nothing is more disgusting, to a lover of neatness and order, than the carriage and manners of a great many prisoners whom we meet in our daily duties. Many possess the true air of a street-corner loafer or bully, and swagger about, with their hands in their trousers-pockets, if they happen to have them,* have one shoulder elevated, cap over the eyes—in short, the bearing and make-up of a "tough." It is a special favor to get from many of these characters a civil answer, or decent behavior towards either their officers or fellow-prisoners. A prison government does not do its duty, and falls far short of its mission, if it does not make a determined effort to reduce such characters to decency and respectability. A prisoner should be made responsible for the cleanliness and good order of his cell, its utensils, furniture, and bed-clothing, as well as his own clothing, etc., making reasonable allowance for wear and tear. He should be required to appear daily on parade, according to some prescribed form, for inspection by the officer under whom he works. Perfect good order, neatness in dress, and general smartness and punctuality, should be expected at these daily parades. To encourage and assist prisoners to be clean and tidy, two suits might be given each man—one for working in, the other for use on Sunday and for cell-wear. Some may object to such a proceeding as being too expensive; but unquestionably there would be a saving. With us there is great waste and loss in clothing, which would be prevented by a regular, systematic, strict inspection. A fresh suit or article of clothing—trousers, for instance, as there is more wear on them than on any other article—could be served out at regular intervals, when the old ones could be used for working in. This is not to create "dudes" or fops of our prison population, but in the interest of neatness and cleanliness, which is said to be next to godliness. It would tend to keep up the self-respect of the better class of prisoners, while the indifferent, careless, and slovenly would be educated and compelled to preserve a higher standard, which possibly might have lasting effects.

LABOR is another very important means not only of preserving order, but of attaining to the more important work of reformation. The old saying, that "Satan finds some mischief still for idle hands to do," is as true inside prison walls as it is in the world around us. Idleness is demoralizing: no worse fate can befall a penal establishment than to have its inmates unemployed. Especially is this true in a congregated prison. Prisoners become weary and restless with the monotony of life, and are more difficult to manage,—talking, tricks, disputes, and quarrels being much more frequent. Laziness, however, is characteristic of the average criminal; they work only under compulsion. Nevertheless, there would be very few who, if they had the choice between enforced idleness and steady labor, but would choose the latter as the least of two evils. The trouble is not so much the dread of work in itself, as the shiftless, unstable notions and habits that prevent them from applying what our Elmira friends term "grip and grit"—two qualities very necessary for success in every walk of life. The allotting of tasks is the best mode of exacting labor; it is more satisfactory at once to both prisoners and officers. It is also a wise provision to allow them to do overwork, after completing their tasks, since this tends to encourage industry, benefits the general discipline of the shop, and enables them to lay up something against their discharge.

* As a rule, there are no pockets in the sides of pantaloons in the Central Prison.

These four—obedience, silence, order in personal habits, and punctuality in labor—may very properly be termed the cardinal points of good prison discipline.

But in a prison or reformatory we find good as well as bad men; and to meet the requirements of these two classes, REWARDS AND PUNISHMENTS have been instituted in various forms. In the absence of well-defined rules or system for conferring rewards or administering punishment, it will evidently be very difficult to mete out justice to all alike. There should be some system of marks, with grades, so that the status of each prisoner may be regularly and justly determined, on a given principle. Without this, many deserving men do not receive the distinction their conduct merits, while troublesome shirks and schemers shuffle through about as well. The methods of conferring rewards are various, such as better clothes, better food, better cells, good time, tobacco, and other privileges. So far as the giving of tobacco is concerned, I believe it to be wrong and totally unnecessary. It is only pandering to a filthy and wasteful habit. Tobacco is a luxury for which the proverbially overburdened tax-payer has to pay. Many contract the habit, while in prison, because it is to be had, and it is said to be a solace for the lonesomeness of cell-life. Better employ their time so fully, from their waking to their sleeping hours, that there will be no chance to get lonesome. Tobacco was formerly issued in our prison as a reward for good conduct; but, owing to the filthy habits of the users, its issue was stopped four or five years ago. Of course there was the usual "kick," which occurs when any important reform is introduced into a prison, and a few were punished. We have better order now than then, and that nuisance is gone forever.

It is a wise and proper course to give rewards for attention to duty and meritorious conduct; it is equally necessary to punish evil-doing. On this subject there is a wonderful difference of opinion. Some, prompted by humane feelings, go to the very extreme, and seem to advocate the abolition of all physical punishments or restraints, and the use of moral suasion or the rule of kindness. Others go to the other extreme, and admire the use of very harsh measures. In our institution we use kind treatment and moral suasion, right along, and the majority of our men appreciate it and are exemplary in conduct and labor. But we have always a small percentage of bad men—rowdies, bullies, and that class—who delight in the reputation of "toughs" or "hard men." Sometimes those who are really hard or bad men outside, make excellent, well-behaved prisoners. But this lawless element, which scarcely ever exceeds five per cent., must be kept under control at any cost; otherwise the force of their example, in an associated prison, would be demoralizing. Kindness and leniency to many of this class is like throwing pearls to swine, and they often, in their stupidity, look upon it as weakness and innocence; they delight to take advantage of it. Outside, they set society and its laws at defiance, and when committed to prison, they manifest the same spirit of contempt for its rules and regulations. Many of them seem to take pleasure in doing wrong, even when it would be easier to do right. How to deal with these erring and misguided ones wisely, justly, and effectively, is a question of importance to every disciplinarian and penologist. If warnings and remonstrances, deprivations, minor punishments, or reduction in grade (if a prison is fortunate in having it) fail to effect a cure, then it is just and right to apply corporal punishment. Many humanitarians are opposed to this, as a relic of barbarism. But there is no question that, for continued incorrigible conduct, assaults on officers, and other serious offences, the application of the "cat"—or it may be a good, sound spanking, as a parent would deal with a disobedient or unruly child—is a most convincing and salutary treatment. The most hardened and defiant characters have been reduced to submission in a few minutes, under the influence of the lash, and have been ever afterwards obedient and well-conducted. Its presence is a power for good and a terror to evil-doers. It should only be applied as a last resort, a disagreeable necessity, and then not in a vindictive or spiteful manner, but in a remedial one, that says: "You have done wrong, you have violated the rules and set at naught the authority of your officers, you are afflicted with an evil spirit; and for your own good, and that of those about you, we must apply a cure." If some of our young criminals had received more of this form of correction, it had been better for them.

Judicious rewards and punishments are the principal means by which discipline is maintained; and discipline is that harmonious action which converts a mob into a trained, controllable body.

An important point for the prison officers to observe is the evenness and uniformity that should characterize the enforcement of discipline from day to day, and not blow hot to-day and cold to-morrow. A lax or irregular discipline is as bad as none, and will never prove a deterrent, which should be one of its results. To hear of convicted criminals asking to be sent to one prison for a much longer term than was imposed, in the first instance, to avoid being sent to another, argues well for the latter, and would seem to indicate something radically wrong in the former.

Now it may be reasonably inferred that a course of training which embodies the foregoing principles, still further assisted by religious and moral instruction, should, if continued long enough, work a change in the thoughts and habits of any corrigible being, and bring about the great and desirable work of his reformation. But a definite term of imprisonment, and usually a short one, is, as a rule, imposed upon first offenders. This, spent in the average jail or prison found in either the United States or Canada, is worse than useless; in nine out of ten cases, prisoners leave jail in a worse state than when they entered. The

treatment there given is seldom either deterrent or reformatory, the associations are bad, and the moral (if not the physical) contamination is terrible.

Is it not a sad commentary on all our advance in prison reform, when we look over our prison population and find at least sixty or seventy per cent. of them lads and young men, going down to destruction? If any are doubtful, or think this statement overdrawn, let them inquire into the history of some mere lads, and they will find that though young in years they are old in crime. And if they should follow the careers of some of them for a few years, they would be astonished and convinced how little is done to reform and save them.

Is there any remedy for this sad state of affairs? There is. Definite (and especially short) sentences having proved failures, the leading penologists of the world are anxiously watching and waiting to see the results of the grand experiment at Elmira, in the New York State Reformatory, where the indeterminate sentence is in operation. Its success is certain, for it is founded on common-sense principles. Its main springs are Hope and Liberty — the two great inherent principles implanted within every human breast. Those of us who are brought into contact with prisoners, know what a mighty motive power there is in that word "liberty," and the hope of its attainment. Why, from the day of sentence the incarcerated are ever counting, ever hoping, ever thinking of that one great event, their release. Indeed, in their anxiety for it, their thoughts are, it is to be feared, never turned to the more important matter of preparing themselves or considering their fitness to mingle again with the world or be exposed to its temptations. Scores of prisoners are discharged from the Central Prison, who go out with the avowed intention of committing crime, and the management know it, but are powerless to do any thing. The Central Prison is no worse in this respect than any other; hundreds of prisons and jails are doing the same. As well might the physician discharge a patient still racked and suffering with disease, or a raving maniac be released from an asylum, as to turn loose upon the world criminals, of any age or sex, still unreformed, and bearing upon them all the marks of moral degradation. God speed the day when, throughout the Great Republic and our own Dominion, we shall have an indeterminate sentence law on our statute-books, faithfully and conscientiously administered by the officers of every prison.

The officers, especially the subordinate officers, of a prison are very important factors in any system of management or discipline. This would be even more so, were an indeterminate system in operation. The duties of guards, keepers, overseers, and foremen (all known to the criminal fraternity by the significant sobriquet of "screws") are onerous and responsible. Nor is everybody fitted to discharge these duties. Many men are pitchforked into the position, with no more adaptability for it than for a seat upon the bench. Experienced and trained officers are a source of strength to any institution; and the State will do well, to offer such inducements and chances of preferment as will retain able men in the service, and cause them to make it a life study and occupation. Too often men seek the place, because they want "a soft job"; others hold it, Micawber-like, waiting for something to turn up; while many more have no definite aim but to put in the time, on the "come-day, go-day" principle. One reason of this is because no hopes of advancement are held out. Would it not be well, while trying to advance and reform the prisoners, to raise the status of these subordinate officers, who can exert more influence in carrying out desirable reforms, than any other class? Why not have for jailers, not "political hacks," but men who have received years of training in the best penal institutions in the land, whose promotion is a reward for long and efficient service? All the prominent virtues may be said to be needed, to make a good guard; but certain ones are indispensable. He must be a strictly moral man, of steady sobriety, and an unblemished character. If he does not possess these, how can he set a good example to those about him? He should also be an intelligent man, faithful in the discharge of his duties, not an eye-servant nor a time-server. Prisoners are severe critics, and woe to the officer who does not lead an upright life; for, if nothing else occurs, the influence for good which he might and should exert will be *nil*. A man who is intemperate, and comes upon duty suffering from the effects of a debauch, is in no fit state to train those whose fall may be attributed to the use of intoxicants. Nor is a dishonest man capable of inspiring lofty motives in those about him. It may be very well to set a thief to catch a thief, but it will never answer to appoint a rogue to reform rogues. Strict integrity and truthfulness are necessary. An officer's word should be above question, and he should preserve the strictest impartiality in all his dealings with his men. Prisoners are very sensitive on this latter point; and being also the most selfish portion of humanity, their conclusions are generally based on their greed and avarice. An officer must be guided by his own judgment, and if actuated by honest and conscientious motives, he will not go far astray. He must avoid all undue familiarity, and preserve a dignity that will command respect. Lastly, by precept and example, he must endeavor to raise the fallen and guide the erring back to paths of rectitude and virtue.

The Woman and Child in Prison.

Mr. Walton Smith, Inspector of Prisons and Asylums for the Province of Quebec, read a paper on "The Woman and Child in Prison."

Mrs. Johnson gave an interesting account of the Woman's Prison at Sherborne, Massachusetts.

Mrs. Harvie, of Toronto, made an impassioned address on behalf of young people committed to prison, and advocated the proper care of discharged prisoners.

Among the other speeches, this evening, was one of Mr. Love, on the importance of requiring the convict to make restitution to those whom he has wronged.

FIFTH DAY—WEDNESDAY.

A letter was read from Archbishop Lynch (Roman Catholic), as follows:

ST. MICHAEL'S PALACE, TORONTO, Sept. 14, 1887.

To the Hon. Secretary of the Prison Congress:

SIR:—Permit me to give expression to a few thoughts on prison affairs.

1. Would it not be wise to have a jail delivery once or even twice a year, to examine cases, in view of shortening sentences of prisoners, such as the case of the father of a family who committed a crime in a moment of passion or drunkenness, but who hitherto bore a good character and is likely to be reformed in a shorter time than his sentence called for. His family suffers, and the criminal also, in remorse for the suffering of his family. Could not such persons be admitted to bail, or with a ticket-of-leave, and be under the surveillance of the police authorities?

2. Should not men who brutally treat their wives be punished corporally by the lash, for inflicting wounds on their innocent and forgiving wives?

3. Could there be any remedy suggested for preventing crime? It is engendered principally on the streets in youth. They were condemned to the filthy lanes and miserable houses, and often with bad fathers and mothers. The children have no place to play or amuse themselves except the streets, and children require amusement and fresh air as much as they do food. The streets with bad companions are their ruin, Lanes and filthy tenement-houses are the nurseries of crime. Could there be any remedy suggested to compel landlords to keep their houses and surroundings in a proper condition?

† JOHN JOSEPH LYNCH.
Archbishop of Toronto.

It was announced that the directors of the Association had decided to hold the next annual meeting in Boston, Massachusetts, not later than the middle of June, 1888.

The Indeterminate Sentence.

Mr. Z. R. Brockway, Superintendent of the New York State Reformatory at Elmira, spoke at length on the influence of the indeterminate sentence upon the discipline of a prison and the character of prisoners. He presented the subject in an unusually clear and attractive light, even for him, and his remarks evidently made a deep impression upon those present.

Mr. Eugene Smith, of New York, followed with a written paper on the same subject. Both of these addresses will be printed in the RECORD hereafter, and we do not therefore undertake to give any synopsis of them at present.

A Drive and a Collation.

The afternoon was taken up by a long drive about Toronto and its beautiful suburbs, beginning with a call upon the Mayor at his office, and ending with a visit to the Zoölogical Garden and the Exhibition, where a collation was served in a tent. Mention should also be made here of the lunch given by Provincial Secretary Hardie, in the Speaker's Dining-room.

The Archbishop's Questions.

On reassembling in the evening, a little time was spent in replies by various members of the Association to the questions propounded by Archbishop Lynch, particularly that relating to the punishment of wife-beating. The drift of most of the remarks made was adverse to the use of the lash, under any circumstances, though some of the speakers took opposite ground.

Incorrigible Misdemeanants.

Professor Wayland read a paper on "Incorrigible Misdemeanants," complementary to that read by him at Atlanta,

last year, on "The Incorrigible Felon." He believed that the indeterminate sentence was applicable to both classes of offenders.

Mr. Robert McLean, of Toronto, spoke of the influence of drink in promoting disorder and crime.

The discussion of Prof. Wayland's paper by Messrs. Felton, Spalding, Wright, and others, brought into bold relief the need for inebriate asylums for the incorrigible drunkards who compose so large a share of the recidivists whose repeated commitments to prison are the disgrace of our judicial system, and suggested the propriety of approaching the question of habitual intemperance from the side of its connection with crime rather than with insanity.

Mr. Walter Smith read a short paper on "The Protection of Society against Crime."

SIXTH DAY—THURSDAY.

City and County Jails.

Mr. E. A. Meredith, of Toronto, read a paper entitled "Our County and City Jails: Shall they Continue to be a Disgrace to Civilization?" He said:

It would be difficult, in my opinion, to overestimate the *impetus* which these meetings have given to the good work generally; but that impetus has naturally been most felt where the meetings have been held. For this reason I was rejoiced when I learned that the National Prison Association had decided to hold its annual Congress this year in this city. The hope of contributing something towards bringing about the revolution in our jails which I anticipate as a consequence, has encouraged me to prepare this paper. My object is to secure an emphatic expression of the views of this meeting upon certain fundamental, well-established principles which, I regret to say, are entirely opposed to those which now obtain in the jails of this Canada of ours.

While thus strongly condemning the common jails of Canada, it must not be supposed that I consider them a whit worse than the great majority of jails across the line, or than the jails of many European countries.

The three points on which I desire to obtain a strong expression are:

(1) The fatal consequences resulting from the indiscriminate association of prisoners in jail.

(2) The frightful results of the practice of committing boys and girls to jail.

(3) The folly, the madness of sending "hardened offenders" or "incorrigibles" to common jails.

A system which (satisfied with the simple separation of the sexes) permits, nay, compels prisoners to herd together in enforced idleness—the novice in crime, the innocent child, and the incorrigible offender—stands *ipso facto* condemned. Who can hesitate to define jails where such indiscriminate association is permitted, whether in Canada or elsewhere, as "institutions created by law, and supported at public expense, for the encouragement and dissemination of vice and crime in the community?"

After quoting opinions of American writers to sustain this position, he continued:

We have an equally appalling picture of the jails of England, some sixty years ago, from the pen of Sydney Smith. "There are in every county in England large public schools, maintained at the expense of the county, for the encouragement of profligacy and vice, and for providing a proper succession of house-breakers, profligates, and thieves. They are schools, too, conducted without the smallest degree of partiality and favor, there being no man (however mean his birth or obscure his station) who may not easily procure admission to them. The moment any young person evinces the slightest propensity for these pursuits, he is provided with good clothing and lodging, and put to his studies under the most accomplished thieves and cut-throats the county can supply. There is, to be sure, not a formal arrangements of lectures, after the manner of our universities, but the petty larcenous stripling, being left destitute of every species of employment, and locked up with accomplished villains, as idle as himself, listens to their pleasant narration of successful crimes, and pants for the hour of freedom, that he may begin the same bold and interesting career."

If there is a universal *consensus* of authorities as to the monster evil of our jail system—the indiscriminate association of prisoners,—there is fortunately an equally universal *consensus* of opinion as to its remedy—a remedy at once obvious and effectual,—the *absolute separation* of the prisoners. No half measures will suffice; no mere classification of the prisoners, no matter on what basis, will meet the case—*the choice must be between separation and contamination.*

In England, so far back as 1835, the separate system, as it is called, was strongly recommended by a select committee of the House of Lords. Again in 1837 it was powerfully advocated by the Inspector ot prisons in his report; again, in 1847, by a select committee of the House of Lords; and still again, in 1850, by a select committee of the House of Commons.

The Committee of the House of Lords in their report state "that they entertain a very decided opinion on this head, and having regard to the course of legislation now extending over many years, and the agreement in opinion and practice of the highest authorities, they consider that the system generally known as the *separate system* must now be accepted as the *foundation of prison discipline*, and that its rigid maintenance is a vital principle in the efficiency of county and borough jails." They go on to say that "the moral results of the separate system (wherever it has been adopted) have been most encouraging and attended with a success which we believe is without parallel in the history of our prison discipline; and in conclusion the committee recommend that legislation be taken as speedily as possible to *render the adoption of separation obligatory upon all jails and houses of correction in England and Wales.*"

In 1865 copies of the "Report and Evidence of the Committee of the House of Lords" just referred to were transmitted to the then Governor-General of Canada, by the Secretary of State for the Colonies, accompanied by an exhaustive circular despatch—in order, as the despatch explained, "that the Colony should have the benefit of the experience of the Mother Country and of the eminent men who had made that experience their study, for the purpose of effecting any amendments which may be needed in the prisons and system of prison discipline in use in Canada." And in urging the adoption of the separate system in Canada, it is added: "You will bear in mind that no ordinary difficulties, nor indeed any difficulties, should be allowed to stand in the way of the establishment of the system."

It is due to the late Board of Inspectors of Prisons in Canada (of which the writer was then the chairman) to say that, even prior to the receipt of the despatch above referred to, as well as after that date, the Board, in their official report, strongly advocated the adoption of the separate system in the jails of this country.

Experience has shown that that system has been universally successful, wherever it has been tried.

The Inspector of Prisons in the southern district of England, in 1882, referring to the then recent introduction of the system into certain of the prisons in England, speaks of the growing conviction of the advantages which have attended the adoption of separate confinement, and adds that the number of the commitments to the prisons altered (so as to make them suitable for the separate system) rapidly decreased, and that in many jails it had been *reduced to one half of what it had been ten years before.*

At the International Prison Congress held in London, in 1872, the only countries that declared themselves satisfied with their prison systems were Belgium, Germany, and Russia, these being the only countries that had adopted the cellular or separate system. And these three countries, in their official answers to the questions submitted to them, stated that they were satisfied with their prison system "so far as it was cellular, or separate, and no farther." The Prussian Government in particular, while speaking in terms of high praise of the general organization of its prisons, added that one thing was yet lacking: "We need the application of cellular (or separate) imprisonment *in all cases of preventive detention and of short sentences.*"

Mr. Meredith made an earnest plea in opposition to the commitment of children to jails; concluding:

If there are no reformatories or homes or refuges to which they can be sent with a reasonable hope of their being brought under wise discipline and wholesome moral influences, it would be better, infinitely better (in the case at least of boys), that they should be brought at once before a special magistrate, appointed for the purpose, and, if found guilty, soundly flogged and dismissed, than that they should be consigned, as they now are, to our common jails, to enter upon their apprenticeship to crime, to start, as it were, upon what Bulwer truly designates as "the Law's Royal Road to the Gallows." In the State of Massachusetts and, if I am not mistaken, in Belgium and Germany, the two countries in Europe the most advanced in the science and practice of prison reform, it is by law forbidden that boys or girls under fourteen should, under any circumstance, be sent to jail. Let us pass a similar wise and beneficent measure; and if we cannot provide proper means for training and instructing our wayward little ones, in the name of Christianity, of decency, and of common humanity, let us guard them from the foul and polluting atmosphere of the jail. If we can not or will not make them better, at any rate let us see to it that we do not make them worse.

The last point touched by the speaker was the folly of repeated recommitments to jail.

It is the right and duty of the State, in the interest not only of society at large but of criminals themselves, to subject them (recidivists) to a lengthened sentence of imprisonment. This method of treatment implies that the State has the power of ordaining indeterminate sentences. It may, I think, be taken as established that society will consult its best interests by sentencing incorrigible or confirmed criminals to indeterminate imprisonment in central prisons or other institutions where a judicious system of discipline is steadily enforced.

By shutting out of our jails the class of prisoners most likely to be corrupted (juveniles under 14), and on the other hand the class most likely to corrupt (incorrigibles), first, the evil of the present indiscriminate inter-

course among the prisoners would be greatly mitigated ; and second, this would facilitate the introduction into them of the individual separation of the prisoners—the only system upon which as reason and experience have shown, common jails can be satisfactorily conducted.

The views and sentiments expressed in this paper met with appreciation and a hearty response on the part of the Congress, as was evinced by the remarks which it elicited.

English Prisons.

Mr. Clement K. Fay, Commissioner of Prisons for the State of Massachusetts, by request, gave the Association a brief but pleasing account of his observations of the English prison system, during a trip abroad made this summer. He thought that we in this country have much to learn from England in the matter of prison organization and government.

Transportation.

In the absence of Mr. Charles Nordhoff, Prof. Wayland read a paper prepared by him, at Dr. Wayland's personal request, as follows :

I have been asked to say something upon the question of establishing penal colonies, which is once more mooted, and upon the possible use of Alaska for such an experiment, which I urged in an article in *Harper's Magazine* so long ago as 1873.

Since that time there has been, I believe, a great reform of abuses in prison management—which was then bitterly needed. In 1873, I was compelled to write :

"Within five years, on an investigation into the management of one of the New York State-prisons, an intelligent convict deposed that the prisoners were the only reputable people in the prison, and there was reason to believe at the time that he did not exaggerate. What with contractors who make fortunes out of the convicts' labor—it is in evidence that a profit of fifty per cent. per annum on the capital thus invested is very moderate, and that a hundred per cent. is not unknown ; what with politicians filling the places of keepers and subordinates, and making percentages of their own ; what with such extravagance in management that, according to an official report, in 1857, 1,890 prisoners in New York cost $112.54 per head, and in 1865, 1,885 prisoners cost $220 per head ; that during twenty-three years, also in the New York prisons, the average per diem for the hire of convict labor increased only fifty per cent., while in the same time the cost of maintaining the prisons increased 300 per cent., and that in the same time the State-prisons cost, to maintain, ten millions, while the convict labor yielded four millions, leaving a deficit of six millions, of which $5,340,000 have been actually raised by taxation within the last six years—with such examples of greed, incapacity, faithlessness to trusts, lack of economy, and general mismanagement before them, how can we expect the reformation of convicts confined in State-prisons ?"

I am glad to believe that the grossest evils and wrongs then set forth have been abolished ; and that the State-prisons and penitentiaries of the different States are now more honestly managed. Are our prisons and penitentiaries now more effective in doing the work which I suppose every one will grant to be their true end ? Are the men and women confined in these prisons made, by their seclusion in them, more fit and capable to live honest and useful lives after their discharge ? If this query were answered or could be truly answered in the affirmative, there would be no reason to urge such a radical change as the establishment of penal colonies. But in fact, men of established reputation for accuracy and candor, who have examined the present system, find such faults with it as declare it even under the most favorable conditions a failure.

A man or woman breaks the law, is tried, convicted, and sent to a State prison or penitentiary. Why does society do this ? 1st. To seclude the law-breaker and prevent him for a time from further violence against itself. 2d. To restrain others from violence by the example of punishment to those detected and convicted, 3d. To prepare the offender to re-enter society with better motives, and enable him to live, after his discharge, an honest and harmless life as a member of society.

Now what does the present system accomplish towards this last end ? The offender is secluded—so he would be in a penal colony. His punishment serves probably to deter some others—but so would his expatriation into a penal colony. Does our present penal system effectually prepare the average convict to re-enter society with a fair chance that he will be a useful, or at least a harmless member ? and does it give him a fair chance in life on his restoration to liberty ?

I believe that I do not exaggerate when I declare that no man who has carefully looked into the matter will answer these questions affirmatively. But if I am right in this, then that pronounces the condemnation of the present system, and makes it a duty to seek a better.

I have read this summer a very instructive little book published by the New York State Reformatory at Elmira ; and have been especially interested in two papers in that book by my friend, Charles Dudley Warner, who discusses the present system of dealing with our convicts, and describes its prominent features, and its results—which he declares failures. He describes the comforts of the newer prisons, which are in fact much greater than the average hotels of our country ; so that if excellent physical surroundings could make a law-breaker honest and effectually industrious, the system would be perfect. "The modern model prison," says Mr. Warner, "is a costly and architecturally imposing structure ; it is safer to lodge in and freer from odors than most hotels ; its cells are well warmed, lighted with gas, and comfortable ; it has a better dietary than most of its inmates are accustomed to ; it has bath-rooms, a library, often large and well-selected ; an admirably arranged hospital ; a cheerful chapel, garnished with frescos and improving texts ; there are Sunday services and Sunday-schools ; there is a chaplain who visits the prisoners to distribute books and tracts, and converse on religious topics ; there are lectures and reading and occasional musical concerts by the best talent ; sometimes holidays are given ; there are extra dinners on Thanksgiving-day, Christmas-day, and the Fourth of July, when the delicacies of the season stimulate the holiday and patriotic sentiments ; and in most State prisons a man may earn a considerable abatement of his sentence by good behavior."

The convicts, he adds, like the new prisons better than the old ; for which no one can blame them ; and he quotes a letter from one such man who complained that in the prison where he had last been confined they did not give the prisoners green corn twice a week in season, and fresh tomatoes. But, alas, when Mr. Warner comes to look at results—at the condition of convicts, who are by and by again free men, he makes the melancholy declaration that it would be impossible to tell the difference between the convicts in a new and those in one of the old and more harshly managed prisons. "There are no evidences." he says in either case, "that the alleviations are working the least moral change"; and he adds the startling statement that "our great prisons now are little better than seminaries and nurseries of crime."

I do not presume to say this ; Mr. Warner says it ; but that an intelligent, conscientious prison visitor should say this is surely a serious matter. Mr. Warner thinks a change needed, and he favors that which the Elmira Reformatory is trying. So far as I can gather from his and other writings in the little book published by the Reformatory, its theory is to make convicts capable of leading an honest and industrious life in freedom, by cultivating their brains. Side by side with the manual labor exacted of them, they are gathered in literature classes, where it is their duty to go through a course of study, of which this extract from the School Secretary's report is intended to give a picture :

"Any one passing along our corridors and galleries at night might now have witnessed a curious spectacle—that of a student of literature reading by gas-light, not the accustomed novel or light history, but the *Prologue* of the Canterbury Tales, the tragedy of Hamlet, Emerson's *May-Day*, or the story of Evangeline ; pondering over the weighted pages of Bacon, or keenly trying to read between the lines of Browning's *Paracelsus ;* not rarely with a note-book at hand filled with private comments wrought out against the coming examination. At the examination, be it remembered, the pupil was required to answer historical questions, and, more important than this, to write out extemporaneously an essay or report dealing with some topic, more or less extensive, growing out of the text of the author—which topic was not selected by himself, but by the Instructor on the day of test. If one could realize the mental process of a 'tough' from the slums of the metropolis, who, after passing up from class to class of our school, is forced to apply his intellectual faculties for the first time to the careful reading of an essay of Macaulay or a poem of Goldsmith, to enter in short the *terra incognita* of good literature ; and if one could then conceive of the state of the same 'tough,' when, after six months of application with growing susceptibility, he reads up *for pure pleasure*, the history of the Renaissance, searches the pages of Dante for illustrations of the text of Chaucer, ransacks our reference library for specimens of early English ;—if one could do this, he would comprehend in some measure what has been done by our class in English Literature."

The Superintendent speaks of the enthusiasm for such sudies, which has gradually grown :

"Books which had long remained unused, suddenly became popular, and the delight in reading expanded so as to include, not merely literature, but other lines as well—ethics, economics, sociology, history, the ancient classics, natural science. Thus on a very small scale, but none the less truly, our revival followed an instinctive development entirely similar to the great Renaissance. As we write, the interest is undiminished, but rather grows by its own great energy of motion. The new spirit penetrates the whole life of the institution. In their social intercourse our inmates make regular topics of books and authors ; informal debates diversify the Dining Hall exercises, and the instructor is gratuitously made the arbiter of frequent discussions of the 'new learning.' Even with incorrigible and indifferent men, who remained unaffected by enthusiasm, the simple strain of inexorable requirement has proved and is proving valuable."

He adds :

"It may be truly said that as a resultant the English Literature class in its harmonious working with the class n Practical Morality, the intellectual life of the Reformatory has been virtually changed in the course of a year, that it has developed a new function, which affords the highest improvement and pleasure in its exercise. Signs of this elevation in social and intellectual tone crowd upon us, affect our system favorably at,unexpected points, assist our work by a many-sided reflex action."

Now, if the convicts are to remain for life in the institution, I have not a word to say. In that case it is only fair that men and women, deprived for life of all the solaces and joys of the family life, and of any existence outside the prison walls, should have such alleviations of a hard fate as

can be provided ; and the love of the best literature is undoubtedly one of the best substitutes for things which men and women hold dearest. But these Elmira convicts are one day to see the outside of those walls ; they are one day to stand in the free air, with the question before them, how are we to get—honestly to get—our bread and cheese and a decent shelter? I cannot see how a love and knowledge of Milton, Shakespeare, Bacon, and Dante are going to help them to these necessaries of life. It is the sorrowful belief of many amongst us, that our common school system has run mad ; that it educates boys to be clerks and girls to be fine ladies, instead of preparing both for honest, useful, and independent toil ; and that a great and trenchant reform is needed in our common-school system, to make it once more useful and not mischievous to the nation, and let it train up men and women, instead of "gentlemen" and "ladies," so-called. But the Elmira system seems to me to adopt the worst vices of the present common-school system, and apply these to convicts—to penniless men and women, that is to say, who are presently to be thrust out into the cold world, friendless, with a stain on their names ; handicapped in every way for the race for bread and butter, shelter and clothing, which they are forced to enter.

That good men should feel impelled to adopt such a device, by way of alleviating the wrongs and errors of the present penal system, seems to me its strongest condemnation. They—experts, men who know all about it—believe the frying-pan so bad, that they prefer the fire.

A convicted criminal is still a man. All the inducements which lead the rest of us—the undetected part of the population, so to speak—to live harmlessly, in society, affect also him. He deserves punishment for his offence, but if we are going to let him live, and by and by set him free, we are bound to so frame his punishment as not to violate too injuriously the laws of nature and human nature. To protect itself against him, society may rightly exclude him. To punish him, it may rightly compel him to labor ; but in doing this, society is bound to make that enforced labor a training for him, against the day it sets him free. He shall work to maintain himself, and not only that, but to maintain all those who are his necessary guards. That is the tax that he shall pay from his labor—because he pays no other tax.

Under our present system, his labor is not a training for the future ; for the most part, it does not even pay for his care and maintenance ; and then his total and prolonged isolation from his family, violates the most important and the most beneficial laws of his nature. Society, which he has offended, has a right to exclude him ; it has a right to punish him ; it has in my belief no right to compel him to live a life of hopeless torture ; because it would on the whole be more humane and cheaper to hang him.

Two important points would be secured by establishing a penal colony in Alaska. First, society would rid itself, by a natural and proper method, of the human beasts who prey upon it, and threaten its security. It would say to the burglar, the robber, the confirmed thief, "You are no longer worthy to live among us ; go into exile. And, secondly, we should provide a future and open a career in a new land to such of the convicts as chose to reform and live honest lives.

We should open to them the hope which is after all dearest and most indispensable to all men and women, the hope of a family life. For I should say that in the government of such a penal colony, the great reward of good conduct, of diligent and patient industry, to the convict, should be, that his wife and children should be allowed to join him, or that, if he were unmarried, he should be permitted to marry.

"The true principle," wrote Captain Maconochie, the governor of the most terrible of English prisons, Norfolk Island, "is to place the prisoner in a position of stern adversity, from which he must work his way out by his own exertions, by diligent labor, and constant course of voluntary self command." "Root, hog, or die," is the rule which applies to most men in freedom, and which should equally apply to convicts ; but they, above all others, need to work in the open air, to attack and overcome wild nature, to earn their bread in the sweat of their brows. We have in Alaska an immense territory, singularly well-fitted to be the scene of an experiment in penal colonization. It is isolated, and escapes would be easily prevented. It is almost uninhabited. Its climate is healthful and bracing ; not too severe for out-door labors ; and yet both land and climate offer few inducements to vagrancy. It is a region in which convicts, who had served out their term, could, and probably would remain with their families to make homes and careers. It is a country in which industry and foresight are needed to enable a white man to exist, and thus the natural conditions of life would help in disciplining the criminals sent thither. Moreover, Alaska is a wilderness, it has no roads, which the convict settlers should build ; it has no public buildings, the construction of which would employ the convict mechanics ; it produces no food, hence, the greater part of the convicts sent thither would be set to clearing lands and tilling the soil—not for the benefit of contractors, but for their own support, and with the promise and expectation to each that, when by his own labor he had shown himself able to make a home and a support for his wife, he should call her to his side, and live thenceforth an independent life, conditioned only upon his continued good conduct and obedience to the general rules of the penal colony and the oversight of its governors.

At the Prison Congress held in London in 1872, Count di Foresta, of Ancona, read a report in which he said of penal colonies :

"Transportation with compulsory labor in a colony, I approve as the best punishment for great criminals. It seems to me to answer perfectly the double object of all punishment—the protection of society, within the limits of justice, and the reformation of the convict. It fulfils the first of these objects—the protection of society—for the most dangerous criminals are thus cast out from the bosom of society ; the grave inconveniences of relapse are avoided, and would-be criminals are deterred by the prospect of banishment from their country and family. The second object is equally met, that of moralizing these individuals, and giving them hope and the means of becoming again useful to themselves and society in another country, where, after undergoing part of their punishment, they can send for their families or found new ones, *thus beginning another existence in an entirely different atmosphere*, which will not seduce them into their former errors."

This is the true point—to so manage the criminal, that when he has suffered his punishment, he may have, at least, the chance to begin a new and better life, and to make even his period of punishment as natural and healthful as is consistent with his seclusion from general society. And this can be best done by exile or penal transportation. It is not done at all under the State-prison system.

The prison system seems to me in every important particular, wrong and mischievous. To enable the criminal to become self-helpful, he must be taught a handicraft ; but in most of our prisons the convicts are employed in manufacturing operations. The convict, like, but more than, all other men, should be compelled to consciously earn his own living—to live from his own labor ; but in our prisons they are fed and clothed, lodged and attended, in gross ; the individual consciousness, so important to all of us, is lost. Finally with a cold and needless cruelty, which some day physicians and moralists will be wise enough and bold enough to denounce as it ought to be denounced, he is denied the gratification of those natural desires which are often too strong and perverted in him, but which yet, if rightly guided, we know, lead men and women to the highest and best lives, impel them to the most self-sacrificing exertions, and draw them to the most manly and useful careers.

Our prisoners and our prisons are increasing. In 1850 there were in all prisons and jails, by the census, only 6,737 persons ; in 1860, 19,086; in 1870, 32,901 ; in 1880, 58,609. We have now 61 State prisons and penitentiaries, and fifty-two reformatories in the United States, "seminaries and nurseries of crime," says Charles Dudley Warner. California, an uninhabited wilderness when I first saw it in 1847, has now, forty years later, already two State prisons. Congress has been repeatedly urged to give money to build a United States prison, which it is said is urgently needed.

Is it useful to go on building new prisons and reformatories, in the face of the undeniable fact that such places and the system necessarily pursued in their management, fail to acheive the results demanded by right-thinking men? Should not penologists take the lead in demanding the trial at least of a penal colony—themselves proposing the rules for its management?

There was but one opinion expressed by the members of the Association as to Mr. Nordhoff's proposition, and that was unfavorable to it. While his article was heard with interest, and a sense of obligation to him for its preparation was cordially expressed, transportation, under our system of laws, to Alaska, was regarded as impracticable. Were it practicable, it would still be undesirable, as the history of transportation by other nations abundantly demonstrates.

Organ Concert.

In the afternoon, the delegates were invited to an organ concert at St. James' Cathedral, which proved to be a most agreeable diversion. The programme was as follows :

Voluntary	S. Clarke.
Chorus of Angels, vocal solo	Mrs. Thompson.
Vienna March	S. Clarke.
Hallelujah Chorus	Handel.
One Sweetly Solemn Thought, vocal solo	Mrs. Davis.
Pastoral	Wesley.
Queen's Jubilee March	———

After the concert, the famous Vienna clock of the tower was inspected by the visitors. This clock has a full set of chimes, which were played for our entertainment.

Discharged Prisoners.

The closing session of the Congress was by far the most interesting of the entire meeting, and it was a pity that it could not have been held before so many of the delegates left.

Mayor Howland spoke on "The Discharged Prisoner." A better address on this subject has never been made, and when we receive the stenographic report of it, we design giving it to our readers in full.

The Close.

Speeches were made by Mr. Wines, Dr. Byers, Dr. Phillips, Mr. Brockway, and Mrs. Johnson. Resolutions of thanks were adopted to all who had extended kindnesses to

the Congress. Mr. Massie replied, and then General Brinkerhoff read the following review of the work accomplished at this meeting. President Hayes having been compelled to leave, in order to attend the Centennial Celebration of the Adoption of the Constitution of the United States in Philadelphia, the General had taken his place in the chair since Tuesday morning.

The Toronto Congress has been one of the largest yet held. Eighteen of the United States have been represented, as also the Dominion of Canada and England. About one hundred delegates are registered, of whom about ninety are from the United States. Of these a large majority are practical prison men, actually engaged in prison work. When we remember that prisons are limited in number—there being only two or three in a State,—it is evident that whatever we have of prison experience and prison knowledge upon the American continent is more than likely to be found in the membership of this Congress. With very few exceptions, all of the great prisons of the United States have been represented upon this floor by their wardens.

To the cursory visitor coming in from time to time to listen to the discussions upon this floor, it may have seemed that there was very little unity of faith among the members of the Congress; and hearing them refuse to pass any resolutions endorsing any special propositions pertaining to penology, they may have concluded that the Congress had no convictions upon which they were agreed. This, however, would be a grave mistake. The National Prison Congress does not meet to formulate penological dogmas, but to interchange experiences and to consider remedies. We listen to all things and hold fast to that which is good, believing that the evolution of time and the survival of the fittest will determine better than resolutions what is enduring and true. Still it would not be wise to conclude that the Congress does not believe any thing. On the contrary, it would be very easy to formulate a creed of more than thirty-nine articles, upon which we are an absolute unit in our convictions; but so long as human conclusions are fallible, we desire to keep ourselves in a position of perfect freedom to adopt any modifications that time may bring to our knowledge. To one familiar with the sessions of Congress since its organization, it is easy to indicate what its convictions are, and it has been the habit of our distinguished President, who unfortunately is absent to-night, to recapitulate the topics under discussion, and indicate our consensus of belief, and if you will bear with me for a few moments I will endeavor to imitate in a small way my illustrious predecessor.

Taking up the first topic under discussion: "the moral and religious care of prisoners," this Congress believes in both with absolute unanimity. They know that prison reform, as now understood in the world, is the outgrowth of Christianity, as certainly as the oak is the outgrowth of an acorn, and that all future growth and progress must be rooted in the teachings of the Divine Nazarene. They may differ as to the ways and means of bringing those precepts to bear upon prisons, but as to its necessity there is no question.

So also with education in all its lines—whether moral, intellectual, or industrial—there is no difference of opinion as to its necessity, and they believe that under its influence the time is coming, and now is, when a large majority of the prisoners within the formative period of life may be returned to liberty as law-abiding and self-supporting citizens.

So again, upon the subject of prison labor, there is no difference of opinion among us as to its necessity. Without it there can be no discipline, no progress, no reformation, nothing of an intelligent prison administration. We believe also that prison labor has no appreciable effect on free labor, either in the prices of products or wages. How can it have, when the product of convict labor in the United States, as compared with convict labor in the same industries, is less than two per cent., and the total product of convict labor as compared with the total product of free labor is only fifty-four one hundredths of one per cent.? As to the systems of prison labor, there is doubtless a divergence of opinion among us, but that is only a matter of detail, to be determined by the circumstances of the locality in which the prison is built, and the class of prisoners to be employed. In Ohio, where we are grading our prisoners so as to have life prisoners and incorrigibles in one prison, and young men under thirty convicted of their first offence in another, we are inclined to adopt for the first prison that system which will make the most money for the States, and in the second whatever system will most conduce to the reformation of the prisoner. In our reformatories for boys and in our reformatories for girls we consider the question of labor the same as in our common schools—no more and no less. In the matter of prison labor, however, we are satisfied that more depends upon the efficiency of administration than upon the system adopted. Under an efficient partisan administration, where reformation of the prisoner has no place, the contract system is undoubtedly the best, for it will make money without any risk; but if the reformation of the prisoner is to be the main object, then some other system must be adopted, and trained officers and a civil-service administration is a necessity.

In the matter of the indeterminate sentence, the National Prison Congress is steadily and surely growing up to the conviction of its absolute necessity, if any great progress is to be made in the reformation of criminals. In fact, I believe it is safe to say that that conviction has already been reached, so far at least as to sentences of young men under thirty years of age, convicted of their first offence. It believes also that prisoners who have indicated, by a third conviction, that they are incorrigibly criminal, should be sentenced for life, and should not be paroled, at least till they have served the maximum period fixed by law for the crime for which they have been convicted.

In the matter of city and county jails, the National Prison Congress has never had but one opinion since I have attended its annual sessions, and its belief is that the average American jail is an offence against God and humanity, and that no large results can be attained in checking the rising tide of crime until it is abolished. We believe there is but one remedy, and that is the absolute separation of prisoners, so that no prisoner shall come in contact with any other prisoner. In Ohio we are building all our new jails to secure this result, and we have one at Mansfield which has been operated upon this plan for nearly five years, and I hope, by the time another Congress meets, to be able to report that a law of the State enforces it in every other jail where its construction shall admit of such separation. We believe also that the county jail should be solely a place of detention for prisoners awaiting trial, and that convicted prisoners should be sent to district workhouses or to the penitentiary, as the gravity of the offence may indicate. This result has already been secured in part by authorizing counties to send their misdemeanants to the workhouses at Cleveland and Cincinnati, and quite a number have availed themselves of the privilege.

In the matter of United States prisoners, which has been upon the programme this year, and has been discussed in previous Congresses, there is now a substantial unanimity of conviction that they should be cared for in Federal prisons, in care of Federal officials. For a great government like ours to convict its citizens of violations of its laws, and then turn them over to the tender mercies of officials over whom it has no control, and in whose appointment it has no voice, is a shame and disgrace which ought to be corrected, and that most speedily. In this conviction, the President and the Department of Justice at Washington are heartily in accord with us, and I am very certain that the next Congress will correct it.

In the matter of discharged prisoners, there is no difference of opinion among the members of the Prison Congress. They believe that the post-penitentiary treatment of prisoners is fully as important in their reformation as that within the prison walls. In fact, without proper care after discharge, very little can be expected from their treatment prior to discharge. In my judgment, the main efficiency of English prisons over American prisons results from separate confinement in county jails and from police supervision and prisoners' aid associations after discharge.

In regard to penal colonies, as advocated in a brilliant paper before the Congress to-day, it is hardly necessary for me to say that it has no endorsers in the National Prison Association either here or elsewhere. It is a relic of the eighteenth century, which was substantially abandoned in the first half of the nineteenth century, and it is too late to revive its horrors at the beginning of the twentieth century.

In the matter of inter-state extradition, which is on our programme and has been frequently referred to in our discussions, there is no difference of opinion among the members of the National Prison Association. We don't want the criminals of Canada, any more than you want ours, and our respective governments ought to correct the evil by an extradition treaty. Personally, I believe not only in a free exchange of criminals, but in a free exchange of products. Here are two countries lying side by side, with the same language, the same laws, and the same destiny not far away, and it seems to me to be the height of folly, nay it is a crime against civilization, to build a wall, visible or invisible, between us. Blood is thicker than water. We may have different flags, but we have the same destiny. As enemies, we shall go glimmering into the dream of things that were, and governments by the people and for the people will pass away. United in a federation of English-speaking races, we can rule the world, and dictate the policies of nations.

And now we come to the end of this conference. We have met, as mariners sometimes meet upon the boundless sea; we have exchanged courtesies and experiences, and now as we separate and set sail for our several ports, we do so with kindly greetings and with a prayer to Him who shapes our destinies, that we may be guided in the ways of truth and righteousness, and that our communion together may be for the elevation of humanity and the progress of the race.

Let us remember that the secret of happiness is in service to others, and that the only way to get good, in this world or the world to come, is to do good. And now, on behalf of those who have come with me from the Great Republic of the star-crowned flag, I extend to the citizens of Toronto heartfelt acknowledgments for the royal welcome and entertainment we have received, and bid you all a kind good-night.

The doxology was sung by the members standing, after which the Rev. Brother Justin, of the New York Catholic Protectory, repeated the Lord's Prayer, and the Congress adjourned *sine die*.

NOTICE—PROCEEDINGS.

The proceedings of this Congress, as also of that of Atlanta, last year, may be obtained by those who desire them on application to Mr. Charles E. Felton, Superintendent of the House of Correction, Chicago, who is the chairman of the Publication Committee. Orders should be accompanied by the money, at the rate of one dollar and a quarter a copy,

unbound, or a dollar and a half, bound, for each of the two volumes respectively. Orders are solicited, to help pay the cost of printing and binding.

CRIME IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

Since printing our article on the "Increase of Crime," in our July number, we have received the report of the Secretary of Statistics of Crime in the State of New York, for the year ending October 31, 1886. Table D gives the number of convictions by courts of record for each of the last 57 years. We are therefore prepared to supplement our previous statement by the following additional table:

New York.

Year.	Population.	Convictions.	Ratio.
1830	1,918,608	1,059	1 to 1,811
1840	2,428,921	1,118	1 to 2,172
1850	3,097,394	1,552	1 to 1,995
1860	3,880,735	1,601	1 to 2,423
1870	4,382,759	2,151	1 to 2,037
1880	5,082,871	2,847	1 to 1,785

According to these figures, the ratio of convictions in courts of record to the total population of the State of New York is very nearly the same as fifty years ago. But the increase during the past twenty years is very apparent, and amounts to more than thirty-five per cent., which confirms our estimate that "there are more than one third more convictions now in the entire country, in proportion to the population, than there were twenty years ago, at the close of the war."

The Secretary of State reports, in addition to 2,860 convictions, during the year 1886, in courts of record, 86,741 convictions in courts of special sessions—nearly double the number reported for the year previous. But he remarks that in 1885 the clerks of ten counties and the sheriffs of six counties failed to report as to convictions in courts of special sessions; in 1886 all the clerks and sheriffs made full reports, which may account in part for the increase from 44,696 to 86,741 only one year later. It is evident, however, that this is only a partial explanation, and that there must have been an extraordinary increase in the number of convictions in the counties which made a report for both years.

Of the 2,860 convictions in courts of record, 1,177 were for larceny, 574 for burglary, 419 for assaults, and 64 for murder or manslaughter. In other words, three fourths of all the convictions in courts of higher grade were for the offences named.

Of the 86,741 convictions in minor courts, 45,073 (or more than one half) were for intoxication; and 10,855 for vagrancy; add to these 14,667 for disorderly conduct, 888, disorderly persons, 126 habitual drunkards, and 658 tramps, which gives a total under these three heads—drunkenness, vagrancy and disorder—of 72,297, or considerably more than four fifths of the entire list. We find 3,703 convictions for petit larceny, and 4,909 for assaults, affrays, and breaches of the peace.

It is interesting to note that of 89,601 convictions in all courts, 76,083 were of males and 20,711 of females; (but in the higher courts only 135 women were convicted.)

On the other hand, 42,709 were natives of the United States, 40,367 of foreign birth, and 3,665 unknown. If these figures are compared with those given in the census for the total population of the State, the ratio of convictions among native-born citizens was 1 to 90; but among the foreign-born it was 1 to 30, or three times as great. This disproportion would no doubt be even greater, were it possible to distinguish, among the convicted, native-born children of foreign parentage. It is fair to say, by way of softening the severity of this general statement, that more than three fourths of those convicted in higher courts were natives of this country. Even in courts of record the balance of conviction is against the foreign-born, but only to a comparatively slight degree.

We note the further fact, that of 1,392 cases tried in the courts of record, only 750 resulted in conviction; 629 in a verdict of acquittal, and 13 in a disagreement on the part of the jury. In 494 cases, the defendants were discharged without trial.

AFTERMATH.

We have called attention before to the fact that every enenlargement of an existing institution involves subsequent alterations not distinctly contemplated at the time when the enlargement is resolved upon. The first cost of any enlargement, therefore, is only a part of the final cost, the amount of which cannot be fully estimated. The report of the State Lunatic Asylum at St. Joseph, Missouri, well illustrates this principle. An addition has been made to the asylum, at a cost of $98,000, which will, when properly furnished, accommodate 300 patients. The former capacity was 250. The trustees say: "It was found necessary to incur outlays and expenditures not especially provided for, before the new wards could be occupied: the boiler-house had to be enlarged, the cooking apparatus and utensils increased, food-ways to reach the new wards were absolutely necessary, a new laundry and ice-house had to be erected," etc. The superintendent says: "The chapel is entirely inadequate in size for the present wants of the inmates. . . . The present kitchen is too small. . . . A suitable boiler-house should be erected at an early date. . . . The coal-house is insufficient. . . . The boiler-power is sadly insufficient. . . . The construction of five new furnaces will be necessary. . . . The engine in use in the laundry is too small for the work demanded of it. . . . A new bake-house is advisable. . . . The number of cows is below what it should be." This is the beginning. The amounts asked of the legislature are surprisingly small, and we do not mention the matter by way of criticism; but only to call attention to the truth of our statement, that the original estimate of the cost of any addition to the capacity of an institution must of necessity fall below the mark.

THE RED FLOWER OF THE MADMAN.

By M. Garshine.

V.

All that night he did not close an eye.

He had plucked the flower, believing to have performed thereby a heroic action, which was imposed upon him, and which he wanted to accomplish regardless of consequences. At the first glance he had cast through the glass door, his attention had fixed itself on this red flower, and from that moment he had comprehended his mission.

In this red flower with incandescent petals were concentrated the evil, the sins of the whole world.

He knew that poppies are used in the making of opium. Perhaps it was this thought, distorted by a diseased imagination, that took on monstrous forms and developed in him fantastic ideas of an exquisitely acute morbidness.

In his eyes, this flower was the incarnation of evil on the earth. It was steeped in blood, in all the blood shed wrongfully in the world. Gorged with the blood, the gall, and the tears of humanity, it stood triumphant. This flower was a terrible and mysterious being, the adversary of God—Arimanes, who had clothed himself in a form of innocent and modest seeming. The flower had to be plucked and bruised to powder.

But that was not all. It was necessary, when it died, to prevent it from exhaling among men its last poisonous breath. Therefore he had buried it in his bosom. He hoped, if he kept it there until morning, it would have lost its destructive power. Evil sin would enter his bosom, and would filter into his soul, and in this manner would be vanquished. As for himself, he would be lost, but would die in a heroic struggle. He would be humanity's noblest martyr, because until now there had been

no one found to dare the combat, body to body, with the personification of evil—that bad genius whose power was so great.

"They did not notice. I have seen that. Ought I to let it live? No. It must be destroyed, annihilated forever."

He writhed, extended on his couch, bathed with sweat, his hair erect with fright, his strength growing less, little by little. In the morning the surgeon found him nearly dead. In spite of his weakness, the patient arose, sprang down from his bed, and ran through the whole house in great agitation, holding with his companions conversations more incoherent than ever. He spoke with himself also, in a vibrating voice, gesticulating wildly. He was not permitted to go into the garden; and the surgeon, on weighing him, found his weight diminished by several pounds. He ordered strong injections of morphine to be administered. The madman made no opposition. At this moment he had, happily, a short interval of lucidity, which was favorable to the operation. He soon dropped asleep; his nervous gesticulations ceased, and the perpetual buzzing in his ears, which had occasioned his jerking and noisy step, and which he tried to escape in his feverish journeyings to and fro, completely disappeared. He became oblivious of all things, and dreamed of nothing, not even of the second flower, the task of plucking which he had imposed upon himself.

At the end of three days, however, he succeeded in tearing it from its stem, and that under the very eyes of the keeper, who did not have time to prevent him. The keeper pursued him into the corridor. The madman ran to his chamber, uttering a loud cry of victory.

He had hidden the flower in his bosom, and pressed it passionately against his heart.

"Who permitted you to pluck flowers?" cried the keeper, when he caught up with him.

But the sick man, stretched on his bed, with arms folded, answered with a flood of words so incoherent, that the keeper contented himself with removing from the patient's head the cap with the red cross, which he had forgotten to take off, in his flight. Then an attack of furious madness broke out. The patient felt the flower disgorging torrents of poison, which became solidified and took the form of venomous serpents. These serpents entwined him, covered him with sharp bites, imprisoned his limbs in their steely coils, spewed over his whole body a burning and foul saliva, whose corrosive action wounded him cruelly. He wept in a loud voice. He called upon God to help him, and cursed his enemies.

Towards evening the flower was withered. The madman crushed the blackened plant under his heel, stamped on it, and, collecting its smallest particles, carried them to the bath-room. Here he threw them in the glowing furnace, on the embers. And looking at his enemy writhing and hissing in the flames, he saw it curl up and transform itself into a tiny flake of snowy whiteness. He blew upon it, and every trace of it disappeared. Then he drew a long breath.

The following day his condition had become much worse. Pale as a sheet, with cheeks fallen in, his eyes fixed and burning in their inflamed orbits, he dragged himself from morning till evening through all the rooms, without rest, staggering and faltering at each step, a mad race, accompanied by feverish discourse and haggard gesticulation.

"I am afraid to use violence with him," said the head physician to his assistants. "However, it is in the highest degree necessary. He weighed only ninety-three pounds to-day. If this continues, he will be dead before forty-eight hours."

The head physician reflected a moment. "Morphine? chloral?" he murmured, undecided.

"Yesterday, the morphine injections produced no effect."

"Well, have him bound, though I doubt whether we shall be able to save him."

And the sick man was bound. He was put in a strait waistcoat, and laid on his bed, to which he was tied by means of broad canvas bands.

But the furious madness persisted. It increased in violence. He was dreadful to look at, his face a livid blue, and his jaws firmly knit together. During several hours, he continued the most unheard-of exertions to break his bonds.

Finally, stiffening himself in a supreme convulsive effort, he succeeded in rending some strips of canvas and freeing his feet. Then he slipped from under the other strips that were crossed over the bed, and went up and down his cell, with tied hands, walking with long steps, and declaiming an incoherent discourse, interrupted with savage growls.

"What the devil!" cried the keeper, on opening the door. "What demon has come to your assistance? Grisko! Ivan! Come quick, the patient has broken loose!"

The three threw themselves upon him, and a terrible struggle took place, a struggle that exhausted the keepers and robbed the patient of his last remaining strength. Finally, they got him on the bed, and tied him more securely than before, doubling the number of canvas bands that held him.

"You do not know what you are doing," cried the patient, in a strangled voice. "You are consummating your own perdition! I have seen a third one of them. It is just half open. It will soon be in full blossom! Let me finish my work! I must kill it! Kill it! kill it! Then all will be finished, all will be saved. I would send you for it, but I alone am able to accomplish the task. If one of you were so rash as to touch it, you would fall blasted by lightning!"

"Silence!" said the keeper.

The assistants withdrew. He remained near, to watch him. The sick man became suddenly silent. He had decided to make use of a ruse. He remained tied the whole day, and, when night came, he was kept in the same condition. The nurse gave him his supper himself; then he prepared a bed on the floor near the patient, and lay down. In a few moments he fell asleep.

Then the madman set to work silently. He twisted and stiffened his body, forcing it to bring his hand, enveloped in the long sleeve of the strait waistcoat, in contact with a rough iron bar that extended along the middle of the bed. He succeeded in rubbing, forcibly and rapidly, this sleeve against the rugosities of the iron. After some time the coarse canvas cloth yielded, and he was enabled to pass out his index finger. From that time the work went on more rapidly. With wonderful cunning and dexterity he untied the knot that held the sleeves together. Then he held his breath for an instant, and listened to the snoring of the nurse. The old man was sleeping profoundly. The patient took off the strait waistcoat, and unknotted the straps that bound him to his bed. He was free. He tried to open the door, but he found it locked inside. The key was probably in the keeper's pocket. The madman was afraid that he would awaken him, if he touched him. He decided to go out by the window.

The night was still and dark. The air was warm and balmy. When he opened the window, myriads of stars were shining. He raised his eyes to heaven and looked at the glittering constellations, and rejoiced that they seemed to comprehend him and approve of him with their soft lustre. He beheld with blinking eyes the rays they sent down to him, and felt strong in his determination.

Now what he had to do was to separate the iron bars of the grating by bending them, to slip through the narrow opening to the lane beneath, and to climb the high wall in front of the window. There a final struggle awaited him, and then—and then ——. Or perhaps it would be his to encounter death!

He tried to bend the thick bars with his two hands, but the iron did not yield. He then twisted the coarse sleeves of the strait waistcoat into a kind of a rope, attached it to a bar, and suspended himself by it heavily, with all his force. After several fruitless efforts, in which he employed a strength much more than that of ordinary men, he succeeded in bending one of the branches of the grating. Then he slipped softly through the narrow aperture, first his shoulders, his elbows, and his knees, and crept along the lane and through the bushes as far as the wall. Here he stopped. All was quiet. The light of the night lamps illuminated the windows from the interior of the asylum. He saw no one. No one noticed him. Without doubt the old keeper was still sleeping profoundly at the foot of his bed. The stars were shining brightly; their pale beams inundated his heart with a sweet joy.

"I come," he murmured, looking up at the sky.

His first attempt at climbing the wall failed; he fell to the ground. With torn nails, and hands and knees bleeding, he sought a more favorable place. There, where the wall ran along the morgue, several bricks had fallen, and the mortar was gone. The madman propted by these breaks in the smooth surface. He clung to them, scrambling up the wall, and succeeded in seizing hold of the bough of an elm tree planted in the garden. He lifted himself into the air by this, and let himself glide softly to the ground.

He ran towards the stone stairway. The flower, of a sombre color in the night, held erect its half-open calyx in the midst of the fresh dew-covered sward.

"The last!" he murmured, "the last! It is now victory or death! But that is indifferent to me. Wait," said he, with eyes raised ecstatically to the sky. "I shall soon be with you."

He grasped the flower, bruised it, and crushed it slowly between his fingers. Then he regained his cell by the same way he had left it. He dragged himself painfully to his bed, and fell upon it in a faint.

They found him dead the next morning. The expression of his face was calm and serene. His emaciated features, his thin lips, and closed and deeply sunken eyelids were transfigured, and as though illuminated with a joyous and triumphant radiance. When they laid him on the bier, one of the keepers wanted to take the red flower from his hand. The hand was closed in a vise-like grip. The madman carried his trophy with him to the grave.—From *The Cosmopolitan*.

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS RECEIVED.

Literacy and Crime in Massachusetts, and The Necessity for Moral and Industrial Training in the Public Schools. By George R. Stetson. Reprinted from the *Andover Review*, Boston: Press of Blair and Hallett, 1886.—Pp. 31.

The Right of Property and the Ownership of Land. By W. T. Harris. Reprint from the *Journal of Social Science*, Number XXII. Cupples, Hurd & Co., 94 Boylston Street, Boston. Price 25 cents.—Pp. 40.

Report of the Commissioners to Locate an Asylum for the Insane in Northern New York. Assembly Document No. 11, 1887.—Pp. 25.

Plans and Elevations, and an Historical Sketch of the Willard Asylum for the Insane, at Willard, on Seneca Lake, N. Y., 1887. Willard Asylum Press, Willard, N. Y.—Pp. 8, with appendix containing plans and elevations.

Die Richtungen des Strafvollzugs und der gegenwärtige Stand der sachverständigen Meinungen. Von. Dr. F. V. Holtzendorff, Professor in München, Stuttgart. Verlag von Ferdinand Enke, 1886.—Pp. 35.

Report of the Secretary of State on Statistics of Crime in the State of New York. Senate Document, No. 19, 1887.—Pp. 245.

OUR BOOK TABLE.

What to do? Thoughts Evoked by the Census of Moscow, By Count Lyof N. Tolstoï. Translated from the Russian, by Isabel F. Hapgood. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., 13 Astor Place, 1887.—Pp. 273.

Usually one's theories are better than one's practice. Count Tolstoï's practice appears to be better than his theories. But we do not notice books in the RECORD for the purpose of pointing out their faults, but to direct the attention of our readers to their merits. Hence, we shall not discuss the fallacies in his argument, believing that the intelligent reader will perceive them for himself. There is beneath it all a deep tone of "*La propriété c'est le vol*," or the denial of the right of individual ownership. No doubt this bald announcement will deter many from reading a work which is nevertheless particularly well worthy to be read on account of its freshness, its simplicity, the large amount of truth which it contains, and the spirit of love and conscientious devotion to a lofty ideal of duty which breathes in every line.

In 1881, after living all his life in the country, he went to live in Moscow, and the poverty of the town greatly surprised him. First, the beggars attracted his attention; some of them he soon discovered to be impostors. He began to look into the character of the lives of the poor who inhabit the slums. Poverty such as he saw appeared to him to be a crime, in which he, who was rich, was an accomplice; but when he discussed the matter with his city friends, they informed him that he was "disagreeably excited." They admitted the evil, but denied their responsibility for its existence, and, to quiet him, praised his kindness of heart. The contrast between his own luxurious existence and the squalor of the slums had disgusted him with himself and others who lived as he did; but the flattery of his friends led him to think that they must be right, and that instead of changing his own manner of life, he must in some way bring about an amelioration of the situation of the unfortunate beings who had excited his commiseration.

> At that juncture the census came up. This struck me as a means for instituting that benevolence in which I proposed to exhibit my charitable disposition. I knew of many charitable institutions and societies which were in existence in Moscow, but all their activity seemed to me both wrongly directed and insignificant in comparison with what I intended to do, and I devised the following scheme: To arouse the sympathy of the wealthy for the poverty of the city, to collect money, to get people together who were desirous of assisting in this matter, and to visit all the refuges of poverty in company with the census, and, in addition to the work of the census, to enter into communion with the unfortunate, to learn the particulars of their necessities, and to assist them with money, with work, by sending them away from Moscow, by placing their children in school, and the old people in hospitals and asylums; and not only that, I thought, but these people who undertake this can be formed into a permanent society, which, by dividing the quarters of Moscow among its members, will be able to see to it that this poverty and beggary shall not be bred; they will incessantly annihilate it at its very inception; then they will fulfil their duty, not so much by healing as by a course of hygiene for the wretchedness of the city. I fancied that there would be no more simply needy, not to mention abjectly poor, persons in the town, and that all of us wealthy individuals would thereafter be able to sit in our drawing-rooms, and eat our five-course dinners, and ride in our carriages to theatres and assemblies, and be no longer annoyed with such sights as I had seen in the Lyapinsky house.

Having conceived this plan, he wrote an article on the subject; but, before sending it to the printer, he showed it to some of his acquaintances, who thought that he was talking nonsense. None of them gave him any money. He read the proof of his article to the City Council (*Dum*), stumbling and blushing even to tears, he felt so awkward. No one was inclined to speak, but two of the members demonstrated the impracticability of his proposition. Nevertheless, he persevered in the execution of the project, himself became a census enumerator, engaged some students to do the same, and relates with charming *naïveté* his experiences, which were both humorous and pathetic. But into these we will not follow him. His illusions fell away from him one by one. Many of the poor he found to be more worthy of envy and admiration than of pity or succor. He noted down unfortunates, whom he designed to help later on—people out of work, dissolute women, and children. None of them seemed to comprehend that the change which they most needed was inward and not external to themselves, that their misfortunes were irreparable by any external means. He found that the errors of which they were the victims were precisely those in which he himself had indulged.

> Out of all those whom I noted down, I really did not help a single one, in spite of the fact that, for some of them, that was done which they desired, and that which apparently might have raised them. Three of their number were particularly well known to me. All three, after repeated rises and falls, are now in precisely the same situation in which they were three years ago.

What he says of the children is particularly striking:

> I, living the life I did, was not in a position to help them. It is very easy to take a child away from a disreputable woman, or from a beggar. It is very easy, when one has the money, to wash, clean, and dress him in neat clothing, to support him, and even to teach him various sciences; but it is not only difficult for us, who do not earn our own bread, to teach him to work for his bread, but it is impossible, because we, by our example, and even by those material and valueless improvements of his life, inculcate the contrary. That which we need to do is to teach him how to live,—that is, to take as little as possible from others, and to give as much as possible; and we cannot help teaching him to do the contrary, if we take him into our houses, or into an institution founded for this purpose.

The result of his well-meant experiment is best told in his own words:

> My whole scheme, which was to have been expressed by tens of thousands of rubles contributed by the wealthy, for hundreds and thousands of poor people who were to be rescued from poverty and vice, dwindled down to this, that I gave away, hap-hazard, a few scores of rubles to those people who asked me for them, and that there remained in my hands twelve rubles contributed by the students, and twenty-five sent to me by the City Council for my labor as a superintendent, and I absolutely did not know to whom to give them.

When, at his leisure, he reflected on this failure, he presented to himself "the aspect of a man who should attempt to drag another man out of a swamp, while he himself was standing on the same unstable ground." He felt that his life was bad, and that it was impossible to live longer in that manner. He perceived the gulf which separates the rich and the poor from each other. He saw that every thing which is considered desirable in the life of the wealthy consists in, or is inseparably bound up with, the idea of getting as far away from the poor as possible. He became convinced that between the rich and the poor there rises a wall, reared by the rich, out of indolence and cleanliness and education, which must be broken down, before the rich are in a condition to help the poor. This truth presented itself to him in the form of a paradox: "The cause of the poverty in towns is our wealth." He had desired to do good to others, simply that he might stop the bitter cry of the outcast poor, and that it might not disturb him in his decorated apartments and at the table spread with dainties bought with money which he had not earned.

> I go to help the poor. But who is the poor man? There is no one poorer than myself. I am a thoroughly enervated, good-for-nothing parasite, who can only exist under the most special conditions, who can only exist when thousands of people toil at the preservation of this life which is utterly useless to every one. And I, that plant-louse, which devours the foliage of trees, wish to help the tree in its growth and health, and I wish to heal it.

But we must not linger over this very interesting story. His inability to help the poor seened to him to be due to three causes: First, the herding of the people in towns, and the absorption there of the wealth of the country. Second, the estrangement of the rich from the poor, by means of an artificial as contrasted with a simple and natural mode of life. Third, shame, founded on the consciousness of immorality in his owning that money with which he desired to help people. Money, he contends, is "a new and terrible form of slavery, and equally demoralizing with the ancient

form of slavery, for both slave and slave-owner ; only much worse, because it frees the slave and slave-owner from their personal, humane relations." The root of every slavery, he declares to be " the use of the labor of others." To be in a position to do good to people, one must rid one's self of money ; that is, one must bestow upon them one's own labor, and not the labor of another.

But before he could emancipate himself from the domination of false ideas acquired by him through the whole course of his life, he had a severe mental struggle with what he believes to be the false teachings of science, in opposition to the truths of religion. He repudiates alike the moral philosophy according to which every thing which exists is reasonable : there is no such thing as evil or good, and it is unnecessary for man to war against evil, but only necessary for him to display intelligence ;—and all the various scientific theories which have for their motive the desire to prove that selfish indifference to the sufferings of others is not immoral. This was the vice of Malthusianism. Of Comtism he says :

> It is only necessary to look upon human society as an object of contemplation ; and I can console myself with the thought that my activity, whatever may be its nature, is a functional activity of the organism of humanity, and that therefore there can not arise any question whether it is just that I, in employing the labor of others, am doing only that which is agreeable to me, as there can arise no question as to the division of labor between the brain cells and the muscular cells. One is able, ever after, to pocket one's conscience, and live a perfectly unbridled animal existence, feeling beneath one's self that support of science which is nowadays not to be shaken !

Science, with its theory of the division of labor, has become " a distributer of diplomas for idleness ; for it alone, in its sanctuaries, selects and determines what is parasitical, and what is organic, activity in the social organism." Art, since it has ceased to minister to morality and has become the servant of pleasure, has degenerated into a trade. Modern progress has for its ideal the possibility of a life without renunciation or self-sacrifice. Culture, and the distortions of sense connected with it, have brought us to that marvellous madness in which we do not see what is so clear and indubitable. From all these depraving influences at work within him and around him he had to free himself by an act of the will ; to confess his guilt ; to repent of it, that is, to reverse his course ; to renounce his consciousness of his own righteousness, his superiority over other people ; and, above all, to submit to the universal law of labor, to eat bread in the sweat of his brow, feeling no shame at any sort of work—to contend with nature for the maintenance of his own life and the lives of others.

In the *Century* for June, 1887, Mr. George Kennan describes a visit paid by him, in June, 1886, to Count Tolstoï. on his estate near the village of Yasnaya Polyana, in the province of Tula. He wore a coarse gray blouse of homespun linen. His daughter was dressed as a peasant and raked hay with the other village girls. The count had spent the morning in spreading manure over the land of a poor widow. In the evening he put a heel on a shoe with his own hands, and continued his cobbling, even when visitors called. Mr. Kennan was impressed with what he terms, with respect, the "childishness" of his character and opinions, meaning thereby a " childish faith in the practicability and the speedy realization of plans, hopes, and schemes which an American, under precisely similar circumstances, would regard as visionary and quixotic." No doubt this remark is just ; yet has he not learned one aspect of the truth contained in that wonderful saying : " Except ye be converted, and become as little children, ye can not enter into the kingdom of heaven ? "

At all events, his book is suggestive, and one cannot rise from its perusal without a genuine emotion of love for the writer, and a clearer view of the perplexing nature of some of the social problems of our day, as well as a hint toward their solution. It helps one's own thought. The least praise which can be bestowed upon it, is that it brings into bold relief the conviction that the happiness of life is found in giving, not in having, much less in receiving, and that the only gift which deserves the name is the gift, not of one's possessions, but of one's self.

NEW YORK SUPERINTENDENTS OF THE POOR.

The State Convention of Superintendents of the Poor met, August 16th–18th, at Babylon, in Suffolk County, on the outer border of Long Island. It was very largely attended, and in the main composed of earnest workers, men and women of large hearts and philanthropic natures. Listening to the reports presented was a source of great pleasure to me, and, I doubt not, to the large audience assembled. The Convention was so well attended, and the papers and discussions were of such a high order, that it was remarked by those claiming to be competent to judge, that the last two conventions were a decided advance on all which preceded them, and almost equal to the National Conference.

The principal reports were on topics in no sense new, but newly vamped and presented under new lines of thought, as follows :

" Our Counties, Towns, and Charitable Institutions," by Superintendent John P. Frazer.

" Sanitary Condition of Almshouses and Asylums, with Some Facts in Regard to Water-Supply," by Dr. Stephen Smith, State Commissioner in Lunacy.

" The Obligations of the Public to the Dependent and Helpless Classes," by Dr. E. H. Howard, Warden of the Monroe County Insane Asylum.

" The Prevention and the Cure of Pauperism," by Dr. N. C. Husted, Tarrytown-on-the-Hudson.

" The Dependent Children of the State Outside of New York City," by Miss S. E. Minton, Chairman of the Committee on Children of the State Charities Aid Association.

" Immigration and Migration," by Superintendent George E. McGonegal.

" The Increase of Insanity, its Causes and Prevention," by Dr. S. H. Talcott, Superintendent of the Homœopathic State Asylum for the Insane at Middletown.

There was another very fruitful source of discussion—that nondescript, that excrescence on the surface of society, that, for the want of a better name, we call " Tramp."

It may be supposed that we were extremely busy for three days ; we refused to drop our work, even for an hour, to accept an invitation to an excursion across the bay.

The reports on " Immigration " and on " Dependent Children " were of exceptional value.

The city of New York is, as the Maw of the British Empire in the past, ready to dispose of all that comes within its reach. Brooklyn may yet be made a part of it, and I am not certain but it will yet absorb the whole of Westchester County and a part of Connecticut. It is at the small end of an immense imaginary funnel, whose disk is ever open seaward, gathering in immigrants from the nations of the Old World, many thousands of them sent hither as paupers and criminals, and many of them insane, to lighten the burdens of Europe. Very large numbers of them are pushed out into the interior counties of the State, under somebody's direction and at somebody's expense ; and in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred (?!) eventually to find a place in our almshouses, asylums, or prisons. A resolution was passed by the Convention calling upon the National Government to institute in some form a stringent blockade against the transportation, by the governments of the Old World, of these objectionable classes to our shores.

The report on the " Dependent Children of the State " was extremely well written and timely, and it ought to find a place on the table of every family in the land. In all charity work, this is *the* question of the hour. We must save the children, if we would save the world.

Public sentiment, throughout the State, upon these two questions—immigration, and saving the children of the poor

—is becoming more and more pronounced. Our Convention, which has absorbed many of the agencies of the State for the dispensing of charity, and is now engaged in an effort to gain the active coöperation of the boards of supervisors of the various counties of the State, is from year to year taking advanced ground. It is fast becoming a power, in fact is so already, and the good yet to be done through this agency is, I believe, beyond computation.

H. C. Taylor, *President of the Convention.*

THE INTERNATIONAL MEDICAL CONGRESS.

That the present Congress is a success, I think I can safely say, writing from the field of action. There are many kinds of success, however, and some qualification of the above statement is necessary.

There are enough doctors present—probably not far from 3,000—to constitute a numerical success, but the question, "Is the *quality* of the attendance in proportion to the quantity?" requires a little reflection.

It cannot be denied that a very large proportion of our most scientific men are not here, and their absence naturally seriously detracts from the value of the work of the Congress as a whole, and the unfortunate differences among the early organizers of the Congress have crippled the official boards of the different sections; yet, notwithstanding these drawbacks, there are plenty of strong men here, and it is safe to say that the average doctor will receive quite as much benefit, if not more, than if our most brilliant men ran things to suit themselves.

The majority of the American Medical Association have the Congress to themselves; they take an active part, learn a good deal, and ought to be—and I believe they are—happy.

On the whole, the quality of the work, taken all round, may not be quite as good as if the original committee had directed matters, but the quantity will be greater, and more men (who really are the most in need of instruction) will be benefitted.

Any thing said above does not apply, however, to the Psychological and Nervous Diseases section, as far as the psychological part is concerned. The number of American neurologists, that is, those men making a specialty of nervous diseases, pure and simple, is small, but there are several foreign neurologists of the best reputation, which atones, in part, for the scantiness of our own countrymen.

The presidency of this section fell into the trustworthy hands of Dr. J. B. Andrews, superintendent of the Buffalo Insane Hospital, and, I think, he has worked hard to obtain the best men both from America and Europe. His efforts have been very successful, for he has brought together more able men from all parts of the world, interested in psychological medicine, than I before remember to have seen mentioned in America. The mention of the following names is proof of the correctness of this assertion:

From England, there are Drs. George H. Savage, G. F. Blandford, W. J. Mickle, all well-known authors; also Drs. J. Langdon Down, D. Yellowlees, D. Brower, and others.

From the continent, Prof. Mendel, of Berlin; Homen, of Finland; Gierlstrom, of Sweden; Otto, of Munich; Sandwith, of Egypt.

From this country, Drs. Nichols, Chapin, Spitzka, Hurd, Gundry, Godding, Blumer, Fisher, C. H. Hughes, Richardson of Athens, Wardner, Schultz, and many others whose names are well-known to you.

Extremely able papers have been read by Drs. Tuke, Savage, Spitzka, Fisher, Hurd, Mendel, Homen, Godding, and others, while all of the gentlemen mentioned have taken part in the discussions.

The most brilliant discussion was that led by Dr. Savage, on "Syphilis and its Relation to Insanity," considered under the following heads:

1. Idiocy, imbecility, moral perversions due to inherited syphilis.

2. Insanity associated with acute syphilis, (*a*) physical, (*b*) moral.

3. Syphilis producing epilepsy, with or without insanity.

4. Syphilis producing mental weakness, (*a*) with, (*b*) without paralysis.

5. Syphilis as associated with general paralysis of the insane.

6. Pathology as represented by coarse changes like gummata, or slighter ones as seen in arterial disease.

Dr. Savage opened the discussion of each of these subjects, incorporating into his remarks original papers by Drs. R. B. Mitchell, of the Morningside Asylum, Scotland; Fletcher Beach, G. E. Shuttleworth, and G. Wiglesworth, all of England.

Other gentlemen participating in the discussion, were Drs. Mickle, Down, Spitzka, Nichols, C. H. Hughes, and Prof. Mendel. The latter has written a very valuable treatise on general paralysis.

It is impossible, in a brief note like this, to give any abstract of the papers read. I send you a list of the papers, from which you may form some idea of the probable character of their contents.

I will merely refer, in passing, to the honest, hearty paper of Dr. Godding, on "Insanity as a Defence for Crime," which, I hope, may some time appear in the pages of the International Record.

Both the Congress and some of the sections have been characterized by management that is called "political." But this is common in all organizations, I suppose, and the many must submit to the ring rule of the few.

It is a pity, however, that the wishes of all cannot be considered, and justice rendered to all.

Before closing, I must refer to a few papers read at the general session of the whole Congress. These sessions have presented lamentably few papers, only a half dozen or so having been actually read, when, in my opinion, there should have been more.

Among the readers, have been Drs. Austin Flint, of New York, on "Fever"; Semmola, of Italy, on "Bacteriology"; G. Fielding Blandford, of London, on the "Treatment of Recent Cases of Insanity in Private Dwellings and Asylums"; and Unna, of Hamburg, on "Relations of Dermatology to General Medicine." All of these are well-known men, and a credit to the Congress.

The general proportion of foreign physicians is large, especially so in view of the cold water thrown on the Congress by many of our medical journals. The wonder is so many came in the face of so much discouragement.

There is still one more matter I wish to mention. That is the formation of a new section of "Climatology and Demography." Papers were read yesterday before this section by Dr. Bryce, of Toronto, on "House Atmosphere"; Prof. Fazio, of Naples, on the "Therapeutic Effects of Natural Mineral Waters"; Dr. Joseph Parrish, on the "Climatic and Sanitary Influence of Forests and the Evil Effects Resulting from their Destruction"; and Prof. Kososi, of Hungary, has also read a paper before this sectinn.

The proceedings of the Congress will be published in full, and this means, I fear, that we shall be well into the nineties before they are completed.

Walter S. Channing, M.D.

Washington, D. C., September 8th.

KATY BAKER AND MINNIE PETERS.

We learn, from the *New York Herald* of the 25th September, that the steamer Warwick brought to the port of Philadelphia two children from Bristol, England, who were to have been forwarded to the Children's Aid Society of New York, to be placed in homes in the West. Their names were Katy Baker and Minnie Peters. They were sent out by Mr. Mark Whitehall, a Justice of the Peace and Superintendent of the Poor in Bristol. The Pennsylvania Board of

Public Charities, acting as Commissioners of Emigration, informed the captain of the Warwick that they could not be permitted, under the laws of this country, to land. He expressed his great surprise, and said that Mr. Whitehall had frequently sent destitute children to the Children's Aid Society, and that there had never been any difficulty in landing them at the port of New York. He offered however to take them back to England, and sailed with them for Norfolk, where the steamer would load with cotton, on her way home.

Mr. Cadwalader Biddle, secretary of the Pennsylvania Board, was interviewed by the Philadelphia correspondent of the *Herald*, and said to him that he had written to Mr. Charles L. Brace on the subject. The next day a lady representing the Children's Aid Society called at the office of Mr. Biddle, and handed him a letter from Mr. Brace, who stated that he had been in the habit of receiving children from abroad and procuring homes for them in the West. The authorities in New York had never refused to allow the children to land ; and, not anticipating trouble over the arrival of the two little girls, he had already secured homes for them in Missouri. In fact, the lady from Missouri went to Philadelphia after them, but the Board of Charities refused to surrender them to her. In a subsequent letter to Mr. Biddle, Mr. Brace said that his society sends 4,000 children to the West every year. Mr. Biddle asks : "Where do these children come from ? Certainly New York alone does not supply them."

Mr. Biddle also wrote to the Secretary of the Treasury, asking for instructions. The Department replied that such children clearly come within the prohibitory clause of the Emigration Act, and the Secretary asked for any information which he might have in his possession respecting the landing of similar children at other ports. From the tenor of this letter it is believed that an investigation by the Government will be ordered in New York.

We make no comment on these statements, but freely and cordially offer to Mr. Brace the use of our colums for the publication of any communication on the subject which he may choose to make.

THE ASSISTED EMIGRATION OF BRITISH CHILDREN.

By the same mail which brought us the copy of the *Herald* containing the story of Katy Baker and Minnie Peters, we received from Mr. Arthur J. S. Maddison, Secretary of the Reformatory and Refuge Union, the volume containing the Proceedings of a Conference of Managers of Reformatory and Industrial Institutions, held in Liverpool, June 9th to 12th, 1887. The very first subject discussed was "Preparatory Training of Children and Methods of Emigration." A very sensible paper with the foregoing title was read by the Rev. Dr. Stephenson, principal of the Children's Home, followed by another by Mr. Harris P. Cleaver, clerk to the West Derby Board of Guardians, on "The Inspection and Supervision of Emigrated Children." In this paper, Mr. Cleaver said :

I believe that £10 per child, now granted by the Guardians, will suffice to cover maintenance, ocean passage, and railway journey, and a month's maintenance in a temporary Canadian home. I will just record the principal items :

Passage money to Hamilton or Toronto . . .	£2 13*s.* 0*d.*
Railway fare and other expenses	1 0 0
Outfit	3 0 0
Maintenance in Canadian temporary home . . .	1 0 0
	£7 13*s.* 0*d.*
Deduct Canadian Government bonus	1 10 0
	£6 3*s.* 0*d.*

leaving a substantial surplus to cover the expense of maintenance in English probationary home, and to meet any contingencies. I may here state that the Guardians of the Prescot Union have sent children to Canada at an average cost of £7 7*s.* 4*d.*

Mr. Cleaver further stated that, by the help of Mrs. Birt, Miss Macpherson, Miss Rye, Dr. Barnardo, and other agencies, about 10,000 children have been transferred from Great Britain to Canada. Mrs. Birt generously gave the credit of starting this scheme to Miss Macpherson.

The Rev. Canon Postance thought it an unnatural state of things for those fathers and mothers, who have borne the burden of the children, and who should have the blessedness of the children as well as the burden, to have them taken away. The Rev. T. Turner replied, that the Conference was considerng the case of children, for whom it will be infinitely better that there should be 3,000 miles of sea between them and their fathers and mothers. Mr. Thomson, of Greenock, said that he did not see his way to sending the best children out of the industrial schools, and keeping the bad ones at home. "If those who emigrate our children to the colonies would only take out those that I can do nothing with, then I should be very glad to send them off. I should be very much inclined to say to our colonial governments : 'If those children are going to be of any benefit to you, you can have them at so much a head, and you can train them for yourselves, and at your own expense.'" Children who are fit to be emigrated, he had no difficulty in disposing of at home.

As to "fitting the child to the place, and the child to the place," Mr. James A. Doughan, of the Liverpool School Board, thought that to ask that this be done is absurd. "I think that all that can be claimed for these [emigration] societies is, that they shall place the children in a better position than they would be in if they were left as they are in this country."

Several speakers laid more or less emphasis on the importance of a good depôt in Canada, a temporary home, from which to distribute them to the families with which they are placed. But the Rev. Dr. Stephenson thought that such a depôt would be of no advantage.

It was generally agreed that the supervision of children placed out in Canada, is insufficient and unsatisfactory. The Rev. Mr. Turner remarked that "to send children out to Canada, and leave them to the mercy of the colonists, however good they may be, is nothing less than a crime and a sin : the whole success of the work depends mainly upon proper inspection." The Rev. Dr. Stephenson said that he was afraid that the system of inspection by the Canadian Government is not so thorough and continuous as it should be. Mr. Thomson believed that inspection is, to a great extent, impracticable. Some of the societies are said to maintain an adequate system of inspection on their own account, while others do not.

Mr. Cleaver expressed the opinion that "children are being shipped out in larger numbers than the resources of the colony warrant." He thought that not more than three batches, of 150 each, should be dispatched annually. Dr. Stephenson admitted that the demand for little boys in Canada is less than it was fifteen years ago. Canon Postance believed the assisted emigration of children to be an unnatural and wholesale way of getting rid of a burden which it is the bounden duty of the mother country to bear. Mr. Turner said : "Canadians do not like pauper children." Mr. Doughan added : "They are very apt to run away, and in a sparsely populated country like Canada, it is very often difficult to follow them." Mr. Jackson said : "Sending boys and girls to Canada without proper supervision is something of a risk." The Rev. Father Greene observed: "I do not like sending so many to Canada. We should not put too much on our friends in Canada."

We have probably quoted enough to show the drift of the discussion, which cannot but be of interest to us on this side of the Atlantic, since it shows that we must protect ourselves against this evil, if it is an evil, and if we desire or need protection against it.

"Why, Nettie, you have put your shoes on the wrong feet." "What will I do, mama ? They 's all the feet I have got."—*Ex.*

FOUR CHARITY ORGANIZATION REPORTS—1887.

By Zilpha D. Smith.

The charity organization societies get plenty of criticism from those who do not believe in them; perhaps a little criticism from a friend will do them no harm.

Buffalo.

This pioneer society of America begins its report for 1887 with a confession of decrease in both financial and moral support since the early years of its work, and the council acknowledges that it cannot understand the lack of popular interest. Yet it takes pride in its work, and especially in the provident schemes which have grown out of it. Under this head it counts the Fitch Crêche, Labor Bureau, and Woodyard,—all excellent institutions. The Labor Bureau is more successful than any within my knowledge in obtaining returns as to whether work was secured or not, and as to its quality. Of 1,470 cards issued to workers, 1,440 were returned with reports from employers. This meets one of the chief difficulties in labor bureaus, and I would urge those who are seeking a solution of this problem in other cities, to write to the Buffalo secretary for copies of the cards, and suggestions as to their use. The efforts of the Bureau seem to be confined, however, to the work of women, and the permanent situations secured appear to be regular work each week, rather than continuous work from day to day. The Provident Dispensary (which appears to have no claim to that specific title, but to be an ordinary free dispensary with a careful system of investigation) and an Accident Hospital are also counted under provident schemes. I like the hospital better than the "principle of the society" on which its claims to support are based, that "the sick poor should be relieved and can be better helped in institutions than in their own homes." What a sweeping assertion! What becomes of that principle of all charity organization societies, that each case should be treated on its own merits? Certainly there are many sick poor who can be as well cared for in their own homes, as in hospitals, much more cheaply to the benevolent public and more kindly and satisfactorily to the family itself.

In table 1 of the statistics, the phrases "referred to co-operative societies," "referred to private persons," etc., are used. These seem to be statistics of the process rather than of the result. I would suggest "coöperation secured" from other societies and private persons, and that it should be stated whether the figures represent *families* or *times*. Out of 1,499 cases, 2,414, according to the statistics, were assisted by employment. Unless one should compare two tables, one would not realize that 2,414 meant times (or persons?) and not families. Table 5 of "causes" seems also comparatively useless, since the total is the exact number of families treated. Is it possible that in 193 cases of desertion there was no intemperance to assist in creating destitution? What we really need to know is in how large a proportion of the 1,449 cases intemperance was *one* of the causes, desertion one, and so on.

Perhaps one cause of this society's going back instead of forward may be found in its recital of what it needs: "We require two hundred ladies who will take a single family each for visitation and friendly counsel, not for alms-giving." "We require a number of gentlemen who will give an hour of their time once in each week as members of our district committees." Why this arbitrary division of labor? Why should men not be allowed the privilege of making friends with poor families needing the counsel of this society? Why should women who devote much time to work among the poor, gaining experience which must be of value to others, be debarred from any voice in the administration?

We believe that the society will take a long step forward when it encourages men and women to work together in all departments of its work.

New Orleans.

The Ladies' Unsectarian Aid Society, a child of the Conference of Charities, takes precedence in this report, and presents its own work before that of its mother. It is three years old, the Conference but four, and both seem to have done good work in bringing order into the charitable work of the city, and making a meeting-place and bureau of information for all charity workers. This first step taken, the General Secretary, who has given so much of his energy and ability to start the work, now feels that it is well organized and needs little of his attention. This title, "General Secretary," belongs in New Orleans to a volunteer, and not to a paid officer, as in most cities. I wish he might still give his thought and time to the work, and develop what seems to me its most important feature: that of bringing the rich and poor together, not in an office, but in their own homes. The chief work of the Conference now, as stated in its report, is "to sift the undeserving poor from the deserving, so that the charities of our city may not be needlessly wasted, and the really needy and worthy may be more abundantly assisted." It has endeavored to organize charity-moneys; let it now try to do the higher work of organizing charitable effort.

The report closes with accounts of sixteen deserving cases and twenty-six undeserving, but in none of them do we find any trace of that continuous effort of one friend on behalf of and with another, which makes the greatest successes of charity organization. It is all work done at crises in the lives of the poor,—well done, but lacking patience and persistent friendliness, which would give it a new meaning and a more permanent result. In not one of the twenty-six undeserving cases does any attempt at reform appear to have been made. To cut off the relief and expose the fraud seems the only ambition of the Conference. In one instance (4,622) a woman was even told that *part* of the cost of transportation to her own city would be given if she could obtain a low-rate railway ticket upon a letter from the Conference. This she did, and the promise encouraged her to collect the other ten dollars needed. Was it a surprise that, after she departed, they found that she had been begging a much larger sum from a number of people in the city? And did she not get at least part of her lesson in that line from the Conference itself when they encouraged her to organize charity for her relief instead of doing it themselves? I take exception also to the emphasis put upon the fact that a few families are aided upon the vouchers of some members of the Aid Socieey without investigation. These are called "confidential cases." Is not all information secured by the Conference confidential? And why should not any unknown person in the city receive the same consideration as one who chances to be known to a member of the society? Why look upon investigation as an evil? To my mind investigation should be undertaken in order to find the best way to help the person in need whether they be *good or bad.* In New Orleans, I should guess from the report that a visit to the family was considered sufficient investigation unless suspicions were aroused. The Conference thus cuts itself off from much usefulness both to the poor and to the rich.

The report condemns public soup-houses on the ground that they give to every applicant, without considering their real need and desert, but the Aid Society has a soup-kitchen of its own which retains almost as obnoxious a feature—the public manner of dispensing aid. Applicants must come to the kitchen for it; they are seen not only there, but on the way to and fro, and they are recognized by their pails as recipients of that charity. Does not New Orleans find that the best of her poor object to this public manner of receiving aid? That the kitchen is well patronized does not prove its usefulness.

We fear that the Aid Society is rather swamping the Conference. Even on page 27, where "opportunities of doing good without spending a cent of money" are set forth, *aia*

creeps in before the end of the sentence and fairly overwhelms the other matter before the paragraph closes. And it is all office-work. Very little is said of visiting the poor except as a means of investigation. Were the Conference to develop the friendly side of its work, we believe it would find great advantage in the separate organization of its relief society, which it now mentions as of doubtful expediency.

Here again we find men and women entirely separated. Women manage the Aid Society and form the district committees of the Conference, but not one shows her face in the board of thirty or more directors.

Bridgeport, Connecticut.

Here the tables are turned. The Associated Charities for Industrial Relief allow men neither as laborers nor administrators, but simply as advisers. The objects of the society read like those of many other societies of similar name throughout the country, but here the greatest stress is laid on industrial work. In so small a place there is more excuse than in large cities for keeping all such schemes under one administration. It makes coöperation with others more difficult, both because of our own tendency to rely upon what is under our management, and in the hesitation of others to take up our cases when we hold a fund from which we might help them ourselves. But it does not make coöperation hopeless.

There is a word to show that the society finds giving sewing to poor women a most expensive kind of relief, though they call what the women do "earning money." In despair of getting help in other ways, they have been led into securing it through entertainments, though they still think "it may be the best way to give directly to the object, without the intervention of fairs," etc.

I should be glad to know if the laundry proves educational. It has been a most difficult thing to keep that element in laundries in other cities, and yet without it artificial work seems almost worse than useless. The Day Nursery, Cooking Class, and Kitchen-Garden evidently give the writer unmixed satisfaction, as indeed they should. Although the society's work is chiefly industrial, it has endeavored to stop street-begging by children, and it undertakes to investigate every family referred to it at once, and leave no case of genuine distress unremedied. I should think its friendly visitors were mere investigators, but for the eloquent paragraphs by A. G. H. which open the report. "Perhaps our greatest hope is to bring back the old sweet meaning to the word charity." "In order to accomplish any abiding good rich and poor must really know each other, must work together, and be mutually helpful. Let no earnest man or woman think that the society is a toy for wealthy people, or that a gift of money is a necessary condition of membership. We are unspeakably grateful to those who have given us such liberal pecuniary aid, but we can do nothing without devoted workers who will give themselves to the cause." "We do not hope to change the world; we only seek to break down the awful barriers between rich and poor in the little corner in which our lives are set. Because we all need help, because to all of us come disappointment, sorrow, and death, and the infinite hardships of life, we seek to get nearer to each other that our burdens may grow lighter by being shared. We shall make mistakes, we shall fail again and again, but out of failure comes clearer knowledge, and no honest human effort is ever wholly lost." Working in that spirit, the society is sure to improve its methods as it gains experience, and I hope much from Bridgeport.

Brooklyn.

Here at last in the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities we find men and women working together through the whole field, on the Board of Control, and as District Visitors. Can this be the reason that the work of the society is better done (as it seems to me) than in any of the societies already mentioned? Here any information received by the society is confidential. The wood-yard takes pains to report back to whoever sends men to it—an excellent means of co-operation. The laundry has a regular system of promotion and increase of pay, which would seem to induce the women to submit themselves to the thorough training which any charitable laundry should give. The work-rooms for women without recommendation were established to meet the need for women, as the wood-yards do for men, and all this artificial work is recognized not as an end, but only as a means, and is chiefly valuable in its relations to the work of friendly visiting.

I dislike the too frequent use of the word "cases," especially in the statistics, and I do not see how "visits made" are any proof of good work done, while the labor of counting them seems useless. The financial computation at the close of the statistics is misleading. I believe the society is dazzled by these bright figures, and forgets for the moment that other causes besides the working of the society helped 230 families to become self-supporting, and that the self-support may not last for a year, so that it is not fair to represent the society as having saved $92,000 to the community; this is going too far.

There is a monthly conference of the secretaries of the District Conferences. The value of such meetings is known only to those who have tried them, and I wish their influence might be more widely felt by inviting other officers besides the secretaries.

And now come the reports of the district conferences, which show that Brooklyn has caught the true spirit of friendly visiting. Of such cases of refusal to work, begging, or cruelty (which in New Orleans are "dismissed as undeserving"), one conference says: "Some of the most degraded of these have, after long patience, been brought into either partial or entire self-support." And the report continues (page 29): "The highest and best part of the friendly visitor's work remains to be done when, having, by the helping hand of a friend, extricated some unfortunate brother from the pitfall into which he had been plunged, he still accompanies him in his walk onward, shares his hopes, perplexities, and fears, and directs his eyes away from the present darkness up to the clear, shining stars of promise and rest to come. Too often this most blessed privilege of the friend is overlooked. When the rent is paid, the father back at work, and the sick child well again, the visitor departs to return no more. He has mourned with those who mourned; to rejoice with those who rejoice, he has forgotten." We can all take these words to heart: Let them guard us from the temptation of dropping our work when it is only partly done.

Another conference says: "To one who studies them in the spirit of the friendly visitor, each case, even the most common and unattractive, is found to have peculiar features, and is invested with a special interest." I might quote further, but let my readers write, instead, to Brooklyn and get the report for themselves.

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS RECEIVED.

Second Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labor, 1886. Convict Labor. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1887.—Pp. 612.

Supplement to the Labor Laws of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, Containing the Acts and Resolves Relating to Labor Passed by the Legislature during the Year 1887. Boston: Wright & Potter Printing Co., State Printers, 18 Post Office Square, 1887.—Pp. 26.

Cerebral Circulation in the Insane. By W. B. Fletcher, M. D., Superintendent of Indiana Hospital for the Insane, Professor of Diseases of the Mind and Nervous System in Medical College of Indiana Indianapolis. Reprint from the *Indiana Medical Journal*. Indianapolis, Ind.: *Indiana Medical Journal* Print, 1887.—Pp. 8.

Report of a Conference on Charities and on Other Subjects Pertaining to the Prevention of Suffering, Pauperism and Crime, Held in Baltimore, April 15 and 16, 1887, under the Auspices of the Charity Organization Society of Baltimore. Printed for the Society by Wm. J. Boyle & Son, Baltimore, 1887.—Pp. 204.